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ABSTRACT

This guide provides procedures and supporting materials for a sex equity workshop aimed at elementary school teachers. The workshop is intended to expand awareness of sexism and to increase sex-affirmative behavior in the educational environment. The guide describes content, process, and sequential learning experiences for seven sessions, plus an optional eighth session. Sessions 1 and 2 are organized to increase awareness of sexism and to provide a common vocabulary. Sessions 3 and 4 focus on the results of sex discrimination and some remedies for education. Sessions 5, 6 and 7 investigate the role of the teacher and focus on practical classroom strategies and planning for change. Included in Session 7 is an assessment of the total workshop experience. Optional Session 8, on assertiveness training, is intended to help in the development of effective change agents. In addition to session-by-session procedures and supporting materials, this guide includes mini-lectures, activity guides, handout materials for the participants (assessment instruments, activity cards, readings, and worksheets), and transparency masters. (KH)

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FACILITATOR'S GUIDE - Elementary Teacher Workshop

CENTER FOR STUDIES OF THE PERSON
San Diego, California

Director
Lynn Stuvé

EXPANDING OPTIONS

EXPANDING OPTIONS

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION/WOMEN'S EDUCATIONAL EQUITY ACT PROGRAM

T.H. Bell, Secretary

(ED) 223968

Developed by the staff of Resources for Non-Sexist Environments, a Federal WEEA project of the Center for Studies of the Person

Coordinators
Carolyn Barry
Ileana Bascuas
Michelle Halprin
Evelyn Solomon

Evaluator
Richard Carney

Secretaries
Rutnann Miller
Laura Moore

Graphic Designers
James Durkin & Francine Foster
Creative Learning Systems, Inc.

Graphic Artist
Anne Willingham

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Note that there is a Homework section and a Process Evaluation at the conclusion of each session. From Session 2 on, the General Business section includes a list of suggested resources. These materials should be made available by the Coordinator; they are valuable resources for you as well as for your participants. During field testing, teachers enjoyed browsing through the materials before and after each session.

INSTRUCTIONAL DESIGN

This workshop, EXPANDING OPTIONS, is designed to move participants from awareness and knowledge to action. The workshop format proved to be very successful during our field-testing activity. We strongly recommend the learning progression of Sessions 1-7 (or 1-8, if the optional session is added) for maximum effectiveness.

Sessions 1 and 2 are organized to increase awareness of sexism and sex-role stereotyping and to provide a common vocabulary. To expand knowledge, Sessions 3 and 4 focus on the results of sex discrimination and some remedies for education. Sessions 5, 6, and 7 investigate the role of the teacher and focus on practical classroom strategies and planning for change. These last three sessions are flexible in activities and sequence so that you can redesign and create a distinctive learning experience for your teacher group. Included in Session 7 is an assessment of the total workshop experience. Optional Session 8, on assertiveness training, received a high rating by our teacher and parent field-test groups. These assertiveness skills are a logical next step to develop *effective* change agents.

Within each session, activities are organized so that your presentations (Mini-Lectures, etc.) are followed by some type of group and/or individual activity in which participants must apply the information you have presented. This gives participants an opportunity to take some responsibility for their learning and allows you time to catch your breath. You may lengthen or shorten time spent per activity, depending on your energy and participant needs and interests.

At the request of the local elementary teachers, we scheduled the 17 1/2- to 20-hour workshop as weekly 2 1/2-hour sessions, held in the late afternoon after school. Regular attendance was emphasized for optimal effectiveness. We secured credit for participating teachers through local university extension programs. Academic credit was a valuable incentive.

NOTES TO THE FACILITATOR

EXPANDING OPTIONS provides sex equity training models for the K-12 school community. The training workshops are designed to expand awareness and knowledge of the effects of sexism and to increase sex-affirmative behavior in the educational environment. The target audience includes teachers (elementary and secondary), students, student leaders, parents, administrators, counselors, and support staff.

The EXPANDING OPTIONS package includes a *Coordinator's Guide* and eight *Facilitator's Guides*. The *Coordinator's Guide* contains information on the development of the workshop model and the evaluation design, as well as a Resources List, including books and other supporting instructional materials. Each *Facilitator's Guide* provides session-by-session procedures and supporting materials. The *Facilitator's Guide* also contains all the Mini-Lectures, Activity Guides, handout materials for the participants (Assessment Instruments, Activity Cards, Readings, and Worksheets), and Transparency Masters called for in the workshop sessions.

FACILITATOR'S GUIDE

This *Elementary Teacher Workshop Facilitator's Guide* describes the content, process, and sequential learning experiences for seven sessions plus an optional eighth session. The session-by-session goals and objectives are achieved by a variety of means, such as large group discussion, small group activities, individual Worksheets, brainstorming, Facilitator-delivered Mini-Lectures, and audiovisual presentations.

Turn to Session 1, first page, and follow along as you read this paragraph. The first page of each session contains the title and goal(s) for that session. The far left column provides an outline of the major events. The timeline, the narrow, shaded column, gives an estimated time for each activity or activity group. Use it as a guide, but make adjustments to meet the needs of your participants. Centered on the page are the objectives and events, with step-by-step instructions for you, the Facilitator. The next column to the right includes pictographic cues, which highlight major activities. The final column is a checklist of general and instructional materials to be used in the session. Underlined print in this column indicates those Worksheets, Mini-Lectures, Transparency Masters (TM), Readings, etc., that are included in the EXPANDING OPTIONS package. All other titles listed are materials to be supplied by the Coordinator or Facilitator.

A class project was required along with regular attendance for teachers taking the course for credit. The purpose of the project was for teachers to apply their new knowledge and awareness to their classrooms. The project required teachers to (a) conduct sex-role awareness activities with their students, (b) share the outcomes with other class members, and (c) write a report about their activities to hand in at the last class session. The written project/activity included the title, goals and objectives, materials needed, the age group of the students, and a description of the process and outcome.

WE RECOMMEND . . .

We recommend that you read the Readings, complete the Worksheets and Activities, and become thoroughly familiar with the Mini-Lecture content, coordinating each one with its accompanying Transparencies. Running a mock workshop with a group of five or six teachers or friends will help get the bugs out.

Check with your Coordinator regarding responsibility for the reproduction and assembly of the materials for your workshop.

Whenever possible, co-facilitate sessions with a person of the opposite sex. We used male-female teams to demonstrate that the issue is a human one, affecting both sexes. Due to the sensitivity of the subject matter, some participants felt threatened and responded with anger and defensiveness. The sessions offer ample opportunity to work through this initial resistance, provided that the Facilitator is sensitive and accepting.

The workshop facility should be equipped for audiovisual presentation and have a chalkboard and/or wall space on which to post newsprint. The available space should be conducive for both small and large group interaction.

TO TEST OR NOT TO TEST

Decide whether you will pre- and post-test participants, and adjust workshop times accordingly. There are three Assessment Instruments included for this purpose: What Do You Know About Sex Equity? developed by Resources for Non-Sexist Environments to measure knowledge gain; Adult Rating Scale (ARS), which measures behavior; and Person-Concept Incongruency Scale (PCIS), which measures attitudes. The first test requires 20-30 minutes and records the most changes; the other two measures require about 10 minutes each and show more subtle changes. The answers to the knowledge test and the scoring procedures for the other two tests may be found in the *Coordinator's Guide*, pp. 4-5.

Great care should be taken to preserve the anonymity of participants, while permitting a comparison of each person's pre- and post-tests. This may be done by placing all forms in prenumbered envelopes and distributing the envelopes randomly to the participants. Have adults write down their numbers in at least *two* places where they are likely to find them at future meetings, and emphasize the importance of using the numbers on *all* Process Evaluation Forms. Explain the need for such numbers and make it clear that there is no intent to identify any individual.

The test items on What Do You Know About Sex Equity? are quite difficult and may cause anxiety in some participants. On the pretest, it is wise to emphasize that the items are designed to measure knowledge *specific* to the workshop. Participants should be reassured that they are not supposed to do very well until *after* the workshop experience.

FROM THOSE WHO VENTURED

Hope for the best but be prepared for the worst. No matter how well you prepare, it will take longer and be harder than you expect. If anything can go wrong, it will. However, the experience will be worth it--more enriching, expanding, and far-reaching than you could ever imagine. Good luck!

SESSION 1: INTRODUCTION TO SEX EQUITY

Elementary Teacher Workshop

GOAL: TO INCREASE AWARENESS OF SEXISM, BOTH PERSONAL AND SOCIETAL

GENERAL BUSINESS 15

Register participants.

Schedule meeting dates and times.

Distribute and review "Elementary Teacher Workshop Outline," course requirements, and suggested Readings.

Establish ground rules regarding smoking, breaks, etc.

individual

Name tags
Registration cards
Sign-in sheet
Chalkboard
Newsprint
Masking tape
Markers
Overhead projector

worksheet

Elementary Teacher Workshop Outline

OBJECTIVE #1

Participants will identify personal expectations for the workshop.

INTRODUCTIONS 25

Introduce yourself, giving professional and personal information. Use three adjectives to describe yourself, modeling this activity for participants.

Have participants introduce themselves, stating their names and schools and three adjectives describing themselves. Do not press for the adjectives if some participants seem threatened by this exercise.

large group

OVERVIEW 10

Review the overall workshop goals, as follows, explaining and clarifying any unclear terms: (a) to expand participants' awareness and knowledge of the effects of sex-role stereotyping and (b) to increase participants' sex-affirmative behavior in the educational environment.

Poster stating overall workshop goals

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Review the workshop outline again and present a session-by-session description of topics and activities.

Present the goals and overview of Session I.

Poster stating Session I goals and overview

PARTICIPANTS' EXPECTATIONS 15

Conduct a guided fantasy: *"Imagine that it's now the end of the six weeks and you're telling a friend about the experience. What would you want to say you had gotten out of the workshop?"*

Record participants' responses on newsprint or a chalkboard and discuss the group's expectations.

ASSESSMENT
(optional pre-testing) 30

Explain the three Assessment Instruments, then administer them.

evaluation

ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENTS:

What Do You Know About Sex Equity?

Adult Rating Scale

Person-Concept Incongruency Scale

OBJECTIVE #2

Participants will be able to define and give operational examples of sexism in the work world, home, school, society at large (media), and personal relationships.

Poster with definition of sexism

DEFINITION AND DYNAMICS OF SEXISM 15

Post and give a working definition of sexism, as follows: *Any attitude or action that stereotypes or discriminates against a person on the basis of sex--whether intentional or unintentional.* Have participants expand and comment on the concept.

mini-lecture

MINI-LECTURE:

Sexism: Definition and Dynamics

Give the Mini-Lecture "Sexism: Definition and Dynamics" using the accompanying Transparencies, "Definitions" and "Dynamics of Sexism."

transparency

TRANSPARENCY MASTERS:

Definitions

Dynamics of Sexism

IDENTIFICATION OF SEXISM

5 Conduct a group brainstorming session on a few examples of sexism as it affects males and females in the following areas: the work world, home, school, society at large (media), and personal relationships.

brainstorm

10 Divide participants into groups of three. Distribute the Worksheet "Where Is Sexism?" and assign each group one or two of the areas to complete, as time permits.

worksheet

WORKSHEET:

Where Is Sexism?

15 In the large group, have each small group report its findings. Record their responses on newsprint or chalkboard. Encourage additional examples from participants and summarize.

READINGS:

Sex Equity Definitions

Sex Roles and the Socialization Process

Sex Differences in Education

Biological Aspects of Sex Differences

HOMEWORK

5 Assign the following Readings for the next session: "Sex Equity Definitions," "Sex Roles and the Socialization Process," "Sex Differences in Education," and "Biological Aspects of Sex Differences."

Preview the next session.

homework

PROCESS EVALUATION

5 Conduct a process evaluation of the session, using the "Process Evaluation Form."

evaluation

ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT:

Process Evaluation Form

WORKSHEET 1

ELEMENTARY TEACHER WORKSHOP OUTLINE

This workshop is designed to increase sex equity awareness, knowledge, and skill. The sessions include experiential learning, practical classroom strategies, and homework assignments.

SESSION 1: INTRODUCTION TO SEX EQUITY

SESSION 2: PERSPECTIVES ON SEX ROLES

SESSION 3: WHY TITLE IX?

SESSION 4: BIAS IN INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS AND LANGUAGE

SESSION 5: SEX EQUITY: MAKE IT HAPPEN

SESSION 6: TEACHER AS CATALYST FOR CHANGE

SESSION 7: EXCHANGING IDEAS

SESSION 8: ASSERT YOURSELF FOR EQUITY (optional)

ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT I

WHAT DO YOU KNOW ABOUT SEX EQUITY?

This Assessment Instrument was prepared by Resources for Non-Sexist Environments to accompany the EXPANDING OPTIONS sex equity workshops.

INSTRUCTIONS: *DO NOT WRITE ON THIS FORM. Place all answers on the answer sheet.*

PART 1: LEGAL BACKGROUND

1. Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 . . .

   a. applies only to sex discrimination against women in education.
   b. is a state law against sex discrimination.
   c. is a county ordinance against sex discrimination.
   d. is a federal civil rights law prohibiting sex discrimination in education.
   e. Both a and d apply.

2. Under Title IX regulations, it is required that education agencies . . .

   a. take all steps necessary to end sex discrimination.
   b. adopt and publish grievance procedures.
   c. appoint a Title IX coordinator.
   d. file an assurance of compliance with the federal government.
   e. All of the above

3. Which is the clearest example of sex *discrimination* according to Title IX?

   a. Men and women are thought to have some innate differences.
   b. Boys are discouraged by counselors from going into nursing.
   c. Girls are not permitted to take auto mechanics.
   d. Girls and boys are placed in separate sections of a wrestling course.
   e. All of the above

4. Sex *fairness* is shown when . . .

   a. the letter of the Title IX requirements is met.
   b. each person is actively encouraged to do the thing in which he or she has the greatest interest.
   c. a program is mounted to make up for past sex discrimination.
   d. efforts are made to stimulate interest in educational areas that are usually "off limits" to one sex or the other.

5. Which of the practices below are permitted under Title IX?

   a. Separate ranking by sex for admissions
   b. Separate courses for boys and girls
   c. Ability grouping within P.E. classes
   d. Different graduation requirements for males and females
   e. None of these is permitted.

6. Sex *bias* is expressed when . . .

   a. boys are ridiculed for being interested in a dance course.
   b. boys are not allowed to take home economics.
   c. women are paid less than men for the same work.
   d. separate graduation standards are used for males and females.
   e. All of the above

7. A Title IX program that clearly shows *sex-affirmative* actions would include . . .

   a. appointment of a Title IX coordinator who has many other responsibilities.
   b. separate sections of sports classes for both sexes.
   c. active encouragement of women who want to enter executive-level educational positions.
   d. no discouragement of boys who want to take home economics.
   e. Both b and c apply.

PART 2: CHANGE

1. What is usually the *last* personal change to be made when sexism is effectively reduced?

   a. Blaming others for the problems of sexism
   b. Integration of the needed changes into thought and behavior
   c. Intellectual understanding of the problem
   d. Feelings of guilt and anger
   e. Emotional identification with the opposite sex and a major change in personality

2. The prospect of change is likely to produce . . .

   a. resistance in the form of apathy.
   b. immediate acceptance as a natural process.
   c. a stimulating sense of challenge for nearly everyone.
   d. uneasiness about the unknown.
   e. Both a and d apply.

3. When producing change, one should remember that . . .

   a. each change will have an isolated effect.
   b. one part of a system is independent of the rest.
   c. a change in one part of a system may change things in other parts.
   d. small changes are seldom effective even when added up.
   e. Both a and b apply.

4. Which are the primary roles of a change agent? (Circle all appropriate answers.)

   a. Disrupter
   b. Catalyst
   c. Solution giver
   d. Controller
   e. Finance acquirer
   f. Resource linker

5. A good change plan could include which steps? (Circle all appropriate answers.)

   a. Definition of the problem
   b. Takeover and control of the system

c. Evaluation and follow-up
d. A procedure to minimize knowledge and maximize emotional change
e. A process for implementing the plan
f. Straightforward use of a tried-and-true formula from earlier projects

PART 3: LANGUAGE

1. What is the most accurate statement about text and reference books?

   a. Dictionaries and encyclopedias rarely show sexism in their language.
   b. One of the least sexist dictionaries has been *American Heritage*.
   c. School texts usually show a good balance of references to males and females.
   d. Textbooks are generally sex affirmative in their emphasis.
   e. Legal texts show little sex bias.

2. Examples of inclusive language are in . . .

   a. use of the word *he* to refer to people in general.
   b. reference to the office secretaries (female) as *girls*.
   c. more frequent use of *he* and *him* than *she* and *her* in school textbooks.
   d. use of the word *homemaker*.
   e. virtually always showing scientists as males.

3. Identify the phrase that reflects sexist language.

   a. The pioneers took their wives and children West.
   b. They grew to adulthood.
   c. The Smiths are an attractive couple.
   d. The supervisor was tough on the workers.
   e. She is not the right person for the job.

4. Sex stereotyping is found in which of the following science and math text examples?

   a. Jim helped Sally with his math.
   b. Jane bought five ribbons for $1.00. How much did each cost?
   c. John built two houses for $80,000 each. How much did he spend?
   d. Leaders in physics include Einstein, Mach, and Roentgen.
   e. All of the above

5. Which is the most preferred form of speech when one is avoiding sexist language?

   a. She was an outstanding sculptress.
   b. The moon landing was a giant leap for mankind.
   c. Both career men and career girls should consider entering the computer field.
   d. He was her Prince Charming.
   e. None of the above is preferred.

6. Our language is structured so that . . .

   a. societal values are not reflected in legal documents.
   b. words such as *he* and *man* when used as general terms are most often interpreted by children to refer equally to both males and females.
   c. "female" words tend to name things that are powerful and active.
   d. "female" words refer to less desirable things as a rule.
   e. Both a and b apply.

PART 4: BIOLOGICAL/ PSYCHOLOGICAL

1. Sex differences in cognitive function make which of the following true?

   a. Adolescent girls have, on the average, higher verbal ability scores.
   b. Tests of analytic ability favor girls.
   c. Spatial visualization averages are higher for adolescent boys.
   d. All of the above.
   e. Only a and c apply.

2. Circle the answers for the statements below that are true.

   a. Males are more resistant to disease than females are.
   b. Females usually have XX and males XY sex chromosome pairs.
   c. Genetic defects are more common in females.
   d. Boys tend to have more muscle tissue than girls do.
   e. Males tend, at every stage of growth, to be larger and stronger than females.
   f. Premenstrual tension is innate among women.
   g. Middle-class American males tend to be more physically aggressive than their female counterparts.
   h. There is clear evidence that in every culture males are more aggressive than their female counterparts.

3. The word *androgyny* implies . . .

   a. neutering of traditional sex roles.
   b. that men take on the traditional sex role of women.
   c. that women take on the traditional sex role of men.
   d. that both sexes are free to assume aspects of both sex roles.
   e. movement toward a homosexual society and away from heterosexuality.

4. Our general concept of mental health for adults tends to be . . .

   a. negatively related to descriptions of healthy females.
   b. positively related to descriptions of healthy females.
   c. negatively related to descriptions of healthy males.
   d. positively related to descriptions of healthy males.
   e. Both a and d apply.

5. Sex hormones . . .

   a. have little to do with the gender of a child.
   b. tightly control the sex role adopted by a child.
   c. are found as androgens only in males.
   d. help produce secondary sex characteristics at puberty.
   e. clearly are more potent than socialization in the development of sex-typed behavior.

PART 5: SOCIALIZATION

1. "All mothers love their children more than fathers do" is an example of . . .

   a. sex bias.
   b. sex focusing.
   c. sex stereotyping.
   d. sex-role socialization.
   e. sex-role identification.

2. Sex-role socialization in schools includes . . .

   a. role models in texts and literature.
   b. differences in teacher response to boys and girls.
   c. differences in teacher expectations for boys and girls.

d. the physical environment of the classroom.
e. All of the above

3. According to the research of Money and Erhardt, when surgery, etc., is used to change the apparent sex of very young children . . .

a. careful socialization leads to good adjustment in the new gender identity.
b. gender identity stays the same as the genetic one in spite of changes in sex-role socialization.
c. some change in gender identity takes place but much confusion remains.
d. the child is likely to become severely emotionally disturbed during adolescence.
e. Both b and d apply.

4. Although males and females overlap greatly on all behavioral patterns, reliable average differences are found that show . . .

a. even as children males are stronger.
b. young girls have wider shoulders than boys do.
c. when social play begins, boys show more aggression than girls do.
d. females are clearly more nurturant than males are in the American middle class.
e. Both c and d apply.

5. When learning sex roles from adult role models in the home . . .

a. girls show more anxiety about their roles than boys do.
b. men spend many hours a week with their children.
c. the role model for girls is less clear than that for boys.
d. boys are more often harshly punished when they deviate from the "male" sex role than are girls when they deviate from the "female" role.
e. mothers teach the "female" sex role but have little to do with teaching the "male" role.

6. Stereotypes of female/male behaviors are . . . (Circle all appropriate answers.)

a. learned almost entirely at home.

b. reinforced by brothers, sisters, and playmates.
c. systematically portrayed in films, on TV, and in other media.
d. vigorously opposed in the typical classroom.
e. seldom found in everyday language.
f. used to assign work and play.
g. mostly learned by casual observation without the need for active reinforcement.

7. Children . . .

a. are often aware of their gender label by age three.
b. do not learn the details of their social sex roles until adolescence.
c. are treated the same, regardless of sex, until age two.
d. (both male and female) are equally valued by most cultures.
e. Both a and b apply.

PART 6: EMPLOYMENT

1. The gap between men's and women's incomes has . . .

a. widened since 1955.
b. shown a steady decrease since 1955.
c. decreased dramatically in the last few years.
d. shown little change over the years.
e. always been quite small for comparable work.

2. Which statements about women's place in the world of work are accurate? (Circle all appropriate answers.)

a. Homemaking is still the full-time job of most women.
b. Most women work only to get luxuries, while their husbands earn enough on which to live well.
c. Four out of five working women are heads of households.
d. On the average, men who have not finished high school earn more than women who graduate from college.
e. On the average, minority women workers earn more than minority men do.

3. Employment for women . . .

    a. has recently shifted toward somewhat better opportunity in professional and technical fields.
    b. will shift by 1985 to lesser percentages in the secretarial and typing fields.
    c. is currently less occupationally segregated than it was 20 years ago.
    d. is moving toward equal pay by 1984.
    e. Both c and d apply.

4. Working women . . .

    a. have median earnings nearly equal to those of men.
    b. are more likely to have more education than women who do not work.
    c. are seldom found in husband/wife families.
    d. mostly work part-time.
    e. Both b and c apply.

5. Which statement is accurate regarding labor force participation?

    a. Women make up 51 percent of the country's labor force.
    b. Middle-aged women are responsible for most of the increase in the female labor force.
    c. In nearly half of all marriages, both husband and wife are wage earners.
    d. Three out of four employed women work full-time.
    e. Both c and d apply.

What Do You Know About Sex Equity?

Answer Sheet

NAME: ______________________________ Date: ____/____/____

INSTRUCTIONS: Circle the correct answers.

PART 1: LEGAL BACKGROUND	1.	a b c d e	5.	a b c d e
	2.	a b c d e	6.	a b c d e
	3.	a b c d e	7.	a b c d e
	4.	a b c d		
PART 2: CHANGE	1.	a b c d e	4.	a b c d e f
	2.	a b c d e	5.	a b c d e f
	3.	a b c d e		
PART 3: LANGUAGE	1.	a b c d e	4.	a b c d e
	2.	a b c d e	5.	a b c d e
	3.	a b c d e	6.	a b c d e
PART 4: BIOLOGICAL/ PSYCHOLOGICAL	1.	a b c d e	4.	a b c d e
	2.	a b c d e f g h	5.	a b c d e
	3.	a b c d e		
PART 5: SOCIALIZATION	1.	a b c d e	5.	a b c d e
	2.	a b c d e	6.	a b c d e f g
	3.	a b c d e	7.	a b c d e
	4.	a b c d e		
PART 6: EMPLOYMENT	1.	a b c d e	4.	a b c d e
	2.	a b c d e	5.	a b c d e
	3.	a b c d e		

ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT 2

ADULT RATING SCALE

NAME________________________ AGE________________

SEX: M_____ F_____ DATE:________________________

INSTRUCTIONS: *Rate or characterize yourself according to the following scale. Choose a response from 1-5 (very seldom to very frequently) which best indicates how often you choose to do the thing that is described. Place the number in the blank at the left of each item.*

1	2	3	4	5
VERY SELDOM	SELDOM	SOMETIMES	FREQUENTLY	VERY FREQUENTLY

_____ 1. YOU ARE ACTIVE AND ENERGETIC. *EXAMPLE: You are vigorous and work hard; you are busy and on the move.*

_____ 2. YOU ENGAGE OTHERS IN HELPING YOU. *EXAMPLE: You seek out and get others to show you how to do things; you look for and receive advice.*

_____ 3. YOU PLEASE OTHERS. *EXAMPLE: You are cooperative and conforming; you do what others want you to do.*

_____ 4. YOU STAND UP FOR YOUR RIGHTS. *EXAMPLE: You act assertively; you do not react timidly or shyly.*

_____ 5. YOU BUILD AND FIX THINGS. *EXAMPLE: You put things together; you figure out how to put broken things in working order.*

_____ 6. YOU MODEL AUTHORITATIVE ROLES. *EXAMPLE: You help authorities and try to enforce rules; you imitate the behavior of those in authority.*

1	2	3	4	5
VERY SELDOM	SELDOM	SOMETIMES	FREQUENTLY	VERY FREQUENTLY

_____ 7. YOU ARE DARING AND ADVENTURESOME. *EXAMPLE: You attempt physical feats; you take chances in your daily activities.*

_____ 8. YOU EXPRESS AFFECTION. *EXAMPLE: You hug and kiss others; you are tender and loving with others.*

_____ 9. YOU ARE RESPONSIVE TO AUTHORITY. *EXAMPLE: You are quick to be obedient; you do not talk back to or question those in authority.*

_____ 10. YOU ARE SENSITIVE TO OTHERS' FEELINGS. *EXAMPLE: You treat others in terms of their needs; you are not critical of others.*

_____ 11. YOU SHOW STRENGTH AND PHYSICAL PROWESS. *EXAMPLE: You pick up heavy things; you challenge others to feats of strength and speed.*

_____ 12. YOU ARE CAREFUL IN APPEARANCE. *EXAMPLE: You take time to keep clean and neat; you call attention to your appearance.*

_____ 13. YOU TAKE CARE OF OTHERS. *EXAMPLE: You comfort others when they are hurt; you help others with their problems.*

_____ 14. YOU MAKE YOUR OWN DECISIONS. *EXAMPLE: You do not depend on others in deciding what to do; you are decisive in making choices.*

_____ 15. YOU ARE COMPETENT IN DEALING WITH THE ENVIRONMENT. *EXAMPLE: You understand how things work; you are persistent and curious in finding solutions to problems.*

_____ 16. YOU ARE PHYSICALLY AGGRESSIVE. *EXAMPLE: You push or hit back if another hits or pushes you; you use force if you can't get something.*

_____ 17. YOU DISPLAY MANNERS. *EXAMPLE: You treat others very politely and act courteous and well behaved.*

1	2	3	4	5
VERY SELDOM	SELDOM	SOMETIMES	FREQUENTLY	VERY FREQUENTLY

_____ 18. YOU PARTICIPATE IN SPORTS AND ACTIVE GAMES. *EXAMPLE: You play strenuous games; you take part in rough competition.*

_____ 19. YOU KEEP THINGS NEAT AND ORDERLY. *EXAMPLE: You pick up your things and put them away.*

_____ 20. YOU LEAD OTHERS. *EXAMPLE: You initiate and organize activities; you influence others' decisions.*

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ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT 3

PERSON-CONCEPT INCONGRUENCY SCALE

NAME________________________________ AGE_________________

SEX: M_____ F_____ DATE:_______________________________

INSTRUCTIONS: *Below are 16 pairs of words with 7 spaces between each pair. Read each pair of words. Choose the space that best describes how you see* *women**. For example, if you see women as "extremely friendly," check the far left space. If you see women as "extremely unfriendly," check the far right space. If you feel women are somewhere in between, then check the space that best describes your response.*

	THE WAY I SEE WOMEN								DO NOT MARK HERE	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		F	F^2
Friendly	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	Unfriendly	E__*	__
Weak	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	Strong	P__	__
Motivated	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	Aimless	A__*	__
Cruel	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	Kind	E__	__
Deep	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	Shallow	P__*	__
Slow	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	Fast	A__	__
Happy	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	Sad	E__*	__
Soft	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	Hard	P__	__
Sociable	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	Unsociable	E__*	__
Excitable	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	Calm	A__	__
Bad	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	Good	E__	__
Free	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	Constrained	P__*	__
Passive	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	Active	A__	__
Wise	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	Foolish	E__*	__
Humorous	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	Serious	P__	__
Complex	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	Simple	A__*	__

Total F ___

Total F^2 ___

PLEASE TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE

On this page please rate how you would like women to be.

	THE WAY I WOULD LIKE WOMEN TO BE 1 2 3 4 5 6 7		F_I	F_I-F	$(F_I-F)^2$
Friendly	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Unfriendly	E__*	__	__
Weak	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Strong	P__	__	__
Motivated	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Aimless	A__*	__	__
Cruel	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Kind	E__	__	__
Deep	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Shallow	P__*	__	__
Slow	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Fast	A__	__	__
Happy	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Sad	E__*	__	__
Soft	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Hard	P__	__	__
Sociable	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Unsociable	E__*	__	__
Excitable	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Calm	A__	__	__
Bad	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Good	E__	__	__
Free	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Constrained	P__*	__	__
Passive	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Active	A__	__	__
Wise	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Foolish	E__*	__	__
Humorous	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Serious	P__	__	__
Complex	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Simple	A__*	__	__

Total F_I ____

Total F_I-F ____

Total $(F_I-F)^2$ ____

PLEASE TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE

INSTRUCTIONS: *Below are 16 pairs of words. There are 7 spaces between each pair. Read each pair of words. Choose the space which best describes how you see* ***men***. *For example, if you see men as "extremely friendly," check the far left space. If you see men as "extremely unfriendly," check the far right space. If you feel men are somewhere in between, then check the space which best describes your response.*

	THE WAY I SEE MEN								M	M^2	F-M	$(F-M)^2$
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
Friendly								Unfriendly	E__*			
Weak								Strong	P__			
Motivated								Aimless	A__*			
Cruel								Kind	E__			
Deep								Shallow	P__*			
Slow								Fast	A__			
Happy								Sad	E__*			
Soft								Hard	P__			
Sociable								Unsociable	E__*			
Excitable								Calm	A__			
Bad								Good	E__			
Free								Constrained	P__*			
Passive								Active	A__			
Wise								Foolish	E__*			
Humorous								Serious	P__*			
Complex								Simple	A__*			

Total M ___

Total M^2 ___

Total F-M ___

Total $(F-M)^2$ ___

PLEASE TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE

On this page please rate how you would like men to be.

THE WAY I WOULD LIKE MEN TO BE

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		M_I	M_I-M	$(M_I-M)^2$	F_I-M_I	$(F_I-M_I)^2$
Friendly	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	Unfriendly	E_*	_	_	_	_
Weak	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	Strong	P_	_	_	_	_
Motivated	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	Aimless	A_*	_	_	_	_
Cruel	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	Kind	E_	_	_	_	_
Deep	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	Shallow	P_*	_	_	_	_
Slow	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	Fast	A_	_	_	_	_
Happy	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	Sad	E_*	_	_	_	_
Soft	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	Hard	P_	_	_	_	_
Sociable	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	Unsociable	E_*	_	_	_	_
Excitable	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	Calm	A_	_	_	_	_
Bad	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	Good	E_	_	_	_	_
Free	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	Constrained	P_*	_	_	_	_
Passive	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	Active	A_	_	_	_	_
Wise	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	Foolish	E_*	_	_	_	_
Humorous	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	Serious	P_	_	_	_	_
Complex	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	Simple	A_*	_	_	_	_

Total M_I ____

Total M_I-M ____

Total $(M_I-M)^2$ ____

Total F_I-M_I ____

Total $(F_I-M_I)^2$ ____

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MINI-LECTURE: SEXISM: DEFINITION AND DYNAMICS

This Mini-Lecture provides an introduction to key terms and issues regarding sexism. Information on the nature of sexism in our society and the way it is perpetuated is included.

SEXISM: A DEFINITION

Sexism is subtle and pervasive. It affects everyone, males as well as females. Sexism is not a woman's issue; it is a human one. Narrowly defined sex roles limit options in every area of our lives. Because most of us are largely unaware of the subtle existence of sexism, the focus of the next series of sessions will be to take a look at sexism as it manifests itself in our personal as well as professional lives, and to identify strategies to overcome its negative effects.

[Display the Transparency "Definitions."]

Sexism may be defined as *any attitude or action that stereotypes or discriminates against a person on the basis of sex--whether intentional or unintentional.*

SEXISM IS USUALLY UNINTENTIONAL

Discrimination is often unintentional. We have so absorbed our culture's assumptions and expectations about how males and females should be that we are unaware of their influence on our interactions with others. An example of this is the use of the term "room mother." The word assumes that this duty is a female function and unintentionally excludes men. Teachers would be only too glad to have a *room parent* who is *male*. Decisions and assumptions that use sex as a criterion for assignment of job responsibilities, participation in active or quiet play, or determination of academic performance are other examples of unintentional sexism.

We all have sexist attitudes and act in sexist ways. Being *nonsexist* means that our attitudes and assumptions about ourselves and others are not based on stereotypes about men and women, but are based on individual capabilities and interests. It doesn't mean that women shouldn't be homemakers, or that men shouldn't be the major providers. Being nonsexist means that roles will be assumed according to individual needs, desires, and talents.

SEXISM IS INSTITUTIONAL

In American institutions, which are supposedly based on the premise of "equality for all," equal participation of females and males is not a reality. Although there are numerous laws supporting "equal opportunity" for groups who have been discriminated against in the past, institutions change slowly. Currently, every major institution in our society is dominated by men: government, law, education, health care, defense, industry, religion, and other spheres of activity. In respect to sexism in education, Title IX prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex. Yet there are educational practices, despite Title IX compliance efforts, that are sexist.

Athletic programs for males, for example, receive more support and promotion than programs for females. Also, career guidance practices and testing services differentiate on the basis of sex.

DYNAMICS OF SEXISM

Sexism, like any other "ism," is self-perpetuating. This self-perpetuating dynamic can be visualized as a cycle of learning and reinforcement. [Display the Transparency "Dynamics of Sexism" to explain the following example.]

Let's use the stereotype "hot-tempered redheads" as an example of this dynamic.

- Experience: A person with red hair flares up in anger.
- Learning: This person is angered easily and has red hair.
- Generalization: People with red hair are hot-tempered (the generalization becomes the stereotype).
- Prejudgment: Next time you encounter a redhead, you expect her or him to get angry easily. Prejudices distort our perception and experience.
- Behavior That Discriminates: As you expect redheads to get angry, you act differently with them or avoid interactions with them altogether.

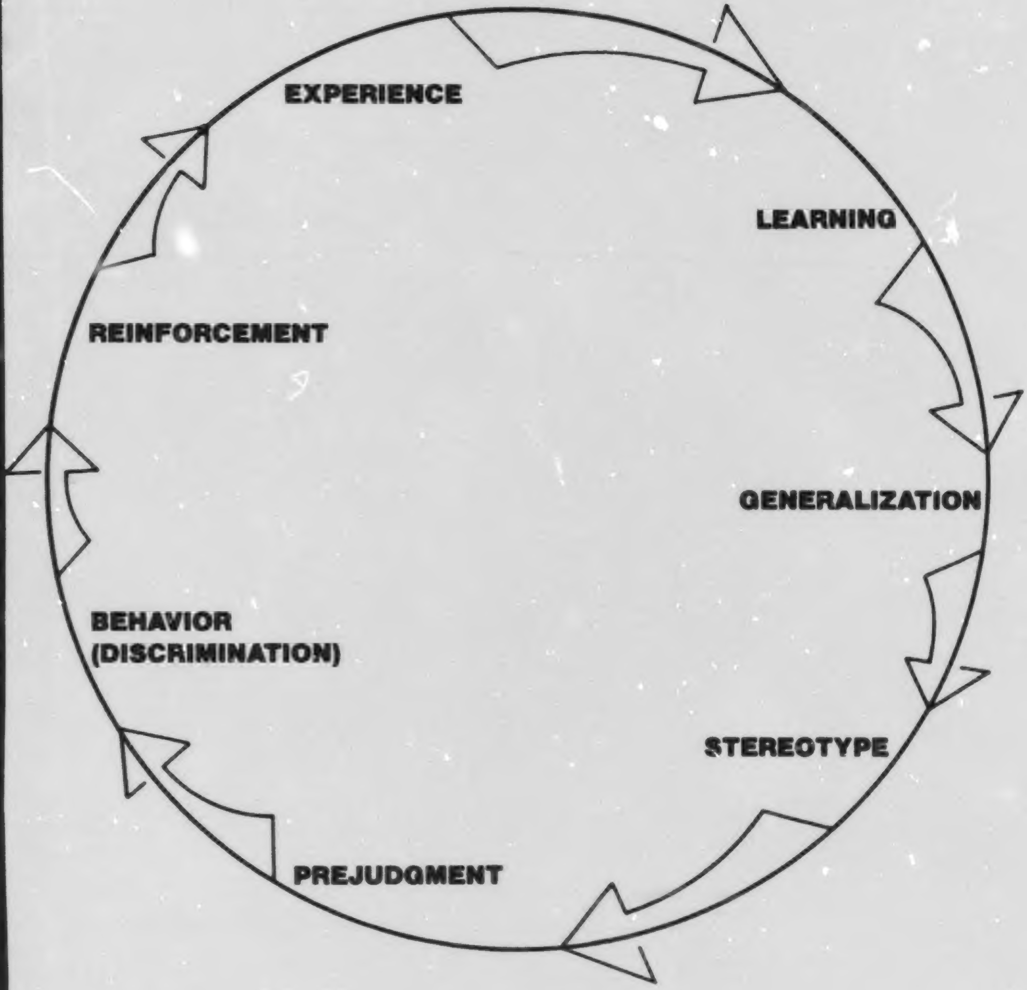
- Reinforcement (Selective Ignoring): Whenever you see a redhead get angry, you make a mental note of the behavior, even though perhaps only one of many redheads you see acts that way. We tend to "see" or notice the behavior we expect. [Have the group give examples.]

TM 1

DEFINITIONS

SEXISM	ANY ATTITUDE OR ACTION THAT STEREOTYPES OR DISCRIMINATES AGAINST A PERSON ON THE BASIS OF SEX--WHETHER INTENTIONAL OR UNINTENTIONAL
SEX EQUITY	ATTITUDES OR ACTIONS THAT ENCOURAGE INDIVIDUALS TO DEVELOP AND ACHIEVE THEIR OPTIMAL POTENTIAL AS HUMAN BEINGS RATHER THAN AS MEMBERS OF A SPECIFIC GENDER GROUP

DYNAMICS OF SEXISM



EXPERIENCE

LEARNING

GENERALIZATION

STEREOTYPE

PREJUDGMENT

BEHAVIOR
(DISCRIMINATION)

REINFORCEMENT

WORKSHEET 2

WHERE IS SEXISM?

INSTRUCTIONS: *Brainstorm examples of sexism in each of the following areas.*

	FEMALE	MALE
WORK WORLD		
HOME AND FAMILY		
SCHOOL		

SOCIETY AT
LARGE

PERSONAL
RELATIONSHIPS

READING 1

SEX EQUITY DEFINITIONS

Use the following definitions as a basis for discussions during the EXPANDING OPTIONS Workshop.

SEXISM	Any attitude or action that stereotypes or discriminates against a person on the basis of sex--whether intentional or unintentional
SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPE	A narrowly defined "masculine" or "feminine" behavior or role based on society's expectations that males and females are "naturally" different
SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION	The process by which sex-typed behaviors are taught and reinforced by society through socialization agents, i.e., home, school, peers, institutions, media
ANDROGYNY	From the Greek roots "andr-" and "gyne," meaning male and female; indicates a balanced expression of "masculine" and "feminine" traits to allow each sex the full range of human characteristics needed for individual actualization
GENDER ROLE	Everything a person says or does to indicate to others and self the degree to which that person is male or female
GENDER IDENTITY	The internalized image of oneself as male or female and the internal standards for judging sex-appropriate behaviors
SEX EQUITY	Attitudes or actions that encourage individuals to develop and achieve their optimal potential as human beings rather than as members of a specific gender group

READING 2

SEX ROLES AND THE SOCIALIZATION PROCESS

This Reading was prepared by Resources for Non-Sexist Environments, a federally funded WEEA project, to accompany EXPANDING OPTIONS, sex equity workshops for school communities, K-12.

INTRODUCTION

How many times have you heard someone turn to another person and with a knowing look say, "Just like a man" or "Just like a woman"? Such expressions point out our cultural expectations concerning the ways males and females should act. And, until recently, these expectations were quite narrow and inflexible. One's sex was a major criterion for assigning tasks and maintaining social order. But today, many people are questioning the value of some sex-typed roles and behaviors. In the worlds of work, sports, and personal relationships, the differences between male and female roles are no longer as rigidly defined as in the past.

WHAT IS SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION?

Sex-role socialization is the teaching of sex-typed behaviors. It is a principal means for preparing young people to fit a culture's preconceived adult roles. Often these roles do not take into consideration the natural talents and interests of the individual.

We have been raised to believe that males and females are different, even opposites, as is reflected in the phrase "the opposite sex." It is easy to list qualities that illustrate these conceptual differences. Men should be brave, strong and intelligent. They should hide their feelings and control rather than cooperate. They should also be financially successful and dedicated to their work. In contrast, women should be supportive, soft, and intuitive. They should work outside the home only when absolutely necessary.

Socialization Agents

Our social institutions, such as schools, the government, the legal system, and religious groups, teach and reinforce these stereotypical ideal male and female roles. Language and the media portray glamorized images of the ideal male and the ideal female. The individual's acceptance and modeling of these sex-role ideals will strongly affect expectations of self and others, as well as career aspirations and achievements. Socialization agents also include parents, teachers, reading materials, peers, and toys.

WHAT IS A SEX ROLE?

A *sex role* (sometimes referred to as *gender role*) is a set of behaviors and expectations that are taught and reinforced by society. Through verbal and nonverbal messages, the young child is rewarded for appropriate behaviors, a reward that reinforces the sex role. These behaviors and expectations are internalized by the child, becoming a part of her or his sex or gender identity. *Gender identity*, then, may be described as the internalized image of oneself as being either female or male and the internalized standards for judging self and others. Initially, a child learns appropriate gender identity through interaction with significant adults.

Sex Roles Are Learned

Although the American culture has consistently maintained that males and females are different, researchers have found little evidence in our society to support the theory that sex roles are based on inherent differences between the sexes. In every culture, different sex-role expectations and responsibilities exist for each sex, but anthropologists have found that sex roles vary greatly from society to society. Margaret Mead and others have found instances of societies where some sex-role behaviors are the reverse of those of Western cultures.

Sex-role behaviors are learned. This is the reason that concepts of "masculinity" and "femininity" vary from culture to culture, as sex roles dictate how individuals should act. It is now felt that the interaction of both nature and nurture (genes and the environment) shapes the individual. (See the Reading "Biological Aspects of Sex Differences.")

How Are Sex Roles Learned?

Psychologists believe that by the time children are three, they know their gender labels (Kagen, 1969). By the time they reach school age, they are aware of which sex they are and what behavior patterns and psychological characteristics are expected of them (Kohlberg, 1966). Such expectations are communicated by both adults and peers.

There are differing theories concerning how a child perceives and learns appropriate sex-role behaviors. Three significant theories, summarized below, attempt to explain how sex roles are learned. These theories have had considerable impact upon child-rearing and educational practices.

Psychoanalytic Theory

The Freudian and psychoanalytic theories of gender learning are largely related to Freud's belief that both males and females go through stages of "psychosexual" development, and the main source of conflict for the individual is to resolve his or her attachments to and desire for the parent of the opposite sex. At the same time, the psychoanalytic theory emphasizes that the major process for learning sex roles is through the imitation of the same-sex parent, or role modeling. Freud endorsed the view that the pattern of psychosexual development and the development of sex roles was normal, innate, and instinctual (anatomy is destiny), and that all deviations were abnormal.

Social Learning Theory

The social learning theory (Mischel, 1970; Bandura and Walters, 1963) tends to de-emphasize biology. Instead it stresses the role of positive and negative reinforcement in the learning of sex-typed behaviors. According to the social learning theorists, sex roles are learned through reinforcement, modeling, and imitation. The individual learns not only on the basis of the consequences of her or his behavior, but also by observing the consequences of the behavior of others. This is called "vicarious" learning or indirect reinforcement. For example, when a young boy sees a classmate being ridiculed for behaving like a "sissy" or when a girl is praised before her friends for neatness, other children learn by observation how they should behave.

Parents are particularly important in the social learning theory. Young children imitate the parent of the same sex (as well as same-sex siblings) and are reinforced for this imitation. In later years, teachers, the media, and books show specific behaviors that are clearly differentiated as more appropriate for females or for males.

Cognitive Theory

Kohlberg (1966) has developed a theory of sex typing based on cognitive development of the individual. His theories have been influenced by the work of Piaget, the French educator. Kohlberg believes that the individual first gains a concept of appropriate male and female behaviors through observation, and then tries to behave in the same manner. An example of the way this works is offered by Jerome Kagan (1969):

> A child learns sex-role standards the way he [*sic*] has learned that certain objects are called boys and men; others girls and women. He learns the definition by noting what they do, how they look, and what they wear, and by listening and watching as others discuss the sexes. The categorization of human beings into the two sexes, usually in place by two-and-a-half years, is one of the earliest conceptual classifications a child makes.

All three theories hold that much in the development of sex roles is learned behavior that starts at an early age. Most authorities believe that these theories highlight three important aspects of sex-role learning, although no one theory covers them all. Sex-role identity is believed to be acquired by (1) the influence and imitation of role models (psychoanalytic), (2) the selective reinforcement of sex-appropriate behaviors (social learning), and (3) the conceptual understanding of masculine and feminine behaviors, followed by the conscious choice by the individual to conform to the appropriate roles (cognitive).

WHAT IS SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING?

Stereotyping means attributing to a group the narrow characteristics of only a few. As a result of stereotyping, ethnic jokes, comments about dumb blondes, and ideas about football jocks exist. Sex-role stereotypes are transmitted through the socialization process, exposing males and females to myopic concepts of masculinity and femininity. The results may be quite damaging for individuals.

For example, if a person has several male friends who are good at fixing cars and generalizes this talent to all males, trouble can develop. This person may become a ready victim for unethical mechanics, assuming that because they are males, they are capable of fixing cars well. The person may assume that his or her son should be able to fix machines, regardless of the son's interests. Assumptions about what people can or cannot do, based on what sex they are, are misleading and can have negative effects, especially where children are involved. Fortunately, many people have begun to realize that rigid sex-role stereotypes are dysfunctional in today's changing society.

HOME AND FAMILY

PARENTS AS SOCIALIZATION AGENTS

Parents have the first and probably most enduring effect in a child's life--they are the child's primary *socialization agents*. Parent/child interactions teach *gender identity* and reinforce *sex-appropriate behaviors*. Parents, determining the content of the child's environment exclusively for the first five years, often have the most significant continuing impact on the child's self-expectations.

Parents and family members set the stage for socialization. Culturally shaped behavioral norms are established even before a child is born. In most cultures, male offspring are more valued for reasons such as the continuance of the family name and the economic status associated with the provider role. Parental expectations regarding future roles--becoming a doctor, farmworker, homemaker, or carrying on the family business--govern parent/child interactions.

Concerning sex-role socialization, one researcher, Ellen Mintz, has stated that the extent to which parents teach stereotyped sex roles depends on their own concept of "masculine" and "feminine" qualities and behaviors. Narrow and rigid definitions of masculine and feminine will limit children's experience--they will see and imitate only these narrow roles. Parents will selectively reinforce the kinds of behaviors which they consider appropriate.

Reinforcement of Sex Roles

An infant's room typically contains many subtle cues to the child's gender identity. The selection of pink or blue gives the family members and others ideas about how they should act with the baby. Infant boys are tossed in the air and played with actively, while infant girls are more likely to be pampered or treated gently.

Michael Lewis (1972) found that both mothers and fathers respond to boy infants in one way and girl infants in another. He has found that mothers talk to and look at infant girls more than boys, but touch boys more often up to six months of age. However, by 13 months of age, boys play more independently than girls and have less physical contact with their mothers. Lewis related these findings to the differing cultural expectations for males and females. He concludes the following:

> The motive [for differential interaction between mothers and infants] appears to be cultural; mothers believe that boys should be more independent than girls and that they should be encouraged to explore and master their world.

Parents may structure activities so that males and females in the family learn to fit traditional "male" and "female" roles and learn only sex-stereotyped skills. For example, requiring an older sister to tend younger children while males are assigned yard work reinforces traditional male/female division or tasks in the home, and limits both male development of nurturing behaviors and female development of strength and stamina. Punishing "brother" for hitting "sister" and dismissing "sister's" behavior when she hits him back reinforce the idea that males should protect females. Other examples of differential activities promoted by parents include praising a son for his competition and achievement in sports and encouraging daughters to be involved in dancing or skating, relatively non-competitive sports.

Toys and Games

The choice of toys and activities plays a large part in the reinforcement of traditional sex-typed roles. Concerning the types of toys available, a report by Ms. Magazine found the following (Porgrebin, 1975):

- "Masculine" toys are more varied and expensive, and are viewed as relatively complex, active, and social.
- "Neutral" toys are viewed as most creative and educational, with boys receiving the most intricate items.
- "Feminine" toys are seen as most simple, passive, and solitary.

Stereotypical social values are at work in the production of sex-typed toys. Values and skills taught by "masculine" toys encourage males to solve complex problems and play at active roles of truck driver, fire fighter, or pilot. Females are most often taught skills in cooking and mothering--caring for baby dolls, washing clothes, or dressing fashion dolls. The only imaginative toys for girls are crafts. Toys obviously teach and reflect stereotypical adult roles and behaviors and have some relationship to cognitive development.

Role Models in the Home

Children learn much about male and female roles, responsibilities, and relationships from observing significant role models, chiefly parents. Identification with the parent of the same sex and her or his feelings about the marriage relationship may influence an offspring's concept of the ideal relationship and partner. Children also learn how to be parents from these early experiences.

Some studies have shown that girls learn more about their roles than boys do. This is probably because mothers usually spend more time in the home and are more involved in child care and household chores than fathers. Girls who are raised by mothers who do not work full-time outside the home are more aware of the female roles. Boys, on the other hand, do not get the same picture of their fathers' daily activities.

Evidence indicates that boys experience more anxiety in conforming to their sex role than girls do. This appears to be a result of the absence or near absence of male role models in the home. This anxiety is partially due to the lower tolerance of "unmasculine" behaviors in boys than of "unfeminine" or tomboyish behaviors in girls. Hartley, an expert in sex-role socialization, has noted that boys are expected to conform to social notions of what is "manly" very early, and that their conformance is reinforced much more vigorously than girls' conformance to sex-role stereotypes. In fact, a little boy's conformance may be reinforced quite harshly, impressing him with the danger of deviating from his sex role before he fully understands what it is.

Because young boys lack male role models in the home, clear ideas of how to behave must be inferred and observed from the media, peers, and/or siblings. In the media, particularly television, these images are often distorted and emphasize physical strength, aggression, and lack of care for others. Even educational programs such as "Sesame Street" portray stereotypical images of females and males. The effect of all these television models has been well documented in recent years. Children also imitate older siblings of the same sex and are reinforced vicariously by observing disciplinary actions that result from sibling or peer behaviors.

SUMMARY

Males are rarely given the opportunity to observe fathers in parenting and nurturant roles. Few men spend more than an occasional hour in the evening and an afternoon on the weekends with their children. The stereotype has been that fathers should be primarily concerned with providing financial security for the family and serve as the authority in the home. Mothers, on the other hand, are the ones who teach, guide, nurture, and support children, in addition to numerous other tasks. Thus, nurturance is seen as a feminine quality and is a behavior discouraged in boys. (A good source of additional information on this subject is David and Brannon's *The Forty-nine Percent Majority: The Male Sex Role.*)

EDUCATION

DIFFERENTIAL TREATMENT

Young people spend a large chunk of their lives in educational institutions. Schools, reflecting the values of society, play a major role in transmitting standards of behavior to males and females. The dynamics of differential treatment of the sexes are complex and subtle, while the results of this treatment are easier to identify. Traditional social norms stereotype males as aggressive, able to solve problems, independent, and capable of career success, while females are seen as passive, dependent, emotional, and having career aspirations that center on homemaking and marriage. Differing academic achievement is documented in the following:

> Results from National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) assessments in eight learning areas show that males generally do better than females in four major subjects: mathematics, science, social studies and citizenship. In the four other learning areas, females consistently outperform males to any large degree in only one (writing); maintain a slight advantage in one (music); and in the remaining two subjects (reading and literature) are above male achievement levels at age 9, then drop to lag behind males by the young adult ages 26-35. (National Assessment of Educational Progress, 1975)

Maccoby and Jacklin (1974), in their research on the psychology of sex differences, have found that, intellectually, girls start off ahead of boys. They begin speaking, reading, and counting sooner; in the early grades, they are also better in math. However, during the high school years, a different pattern emerges and girls' performance on ability tests begins to decline. Indeed, male students exhibit significantly more IQ gain from adolescence to adulthood than their female counterparts do.

Research has found differences in intellectual functioning but has not documented any "innate" biological reasons for differing cognitive achievements. Thus, psychologists and educators are looking to cultural and environmental determinants. The following sections will identify some significant areas and behaviors within the school environment that influence, shape, and often limit potential.

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE AND ROLE MODELS

For young people, their reality is what they see. Children, when questioned as to whether a woman can be a doctor or a man a nurse, often respond, "No, because I've never seen one." Role models are significant to a child's reality. The absence of role models can limit aspirations, while the availability of role models can expand aspirations and perceptions.

The structure and organization of schools and school systems, as in other institutions, illustrate an imbalance of males and females in various levels of the hierarchy. Men dominate administrative and policymaking positions, while women are concentrated in elementary classrooms. In elementary schools, while 83 percent of the instructional staff are females, only 14 percent of all elementary principals are women. At the secondary level, these figures are 49 percent of instructional staff and 2 percent of principals. Fifty years ago, over half of school principals in the U.S. were women (Coursen, 1975).

In higher education, 79 percent of the administrative positions at the institutions surveyed by the Ford Foundation were held by white men; white women held 14 percent, minority men held 5 percent, and minority women held less than 2 percent. Students see who is the leader. Boys do not have the opportunity to have a male kindergarten teacher as a role model and girls do not see a woman in a leadership role. Females in decision-making roles and males in nurturant roles are currently few in number in our schools.

CURRICULUM

The instructional program is another factor that inadvertently limits human potential. Examples of this are as follows: course titles that appeal only to males or to females; athletic programs with unequal funding and limited participation; and subject areas that do not integrate the contributions of women and minorities. Furthermore, career and vocational education programs are traditionally based. They have not assisted students to prepare for adult roles by offering guidance and exposure to non-traditional employment opportunity. Activities, classroom tasks and responsibilities, dress codes, leadership positions, and instructional groupings are frequently divided on the basis of sex rather than some other criterion. These practices limit opportunity, aspirations, and skill development. School personnel and guidance programs can also inadvertently provide unequal treatment regarding behavior, course selection, and career planning.

Instructional materials such as textbooks, testing instruments, TV, and other media are contributors to sexism. They reinforce stereotypes by limiting roles and personality characteristics on the basis of the American Dream, which envisions the male worker, the female full-time homemaker. In actuality, almost half the work force is female, half of married women work, and more and more men are venturing into the homemaker role, at least part-time. The reality and complexity of the culture are not portrayed by these restricted images, which narrow rather than expand student experience and thought processes.

Schools often unknowingly reinforce stereotyped notions of sex-role behavior through the *physical environment*. Displays, trophy cases, bulletin boards, symbols and pictures within the school and classroom environment also communicate differential expectations. The exclusion of one sex in visuals or language discourages the participation of the excluded sex.

TEACHER EXPECTATIONS AND BEHAVIORS

Teachers are a very influential factor in a student's achievement and aspiration. Teachers most likely find the behaviors they expect. There is a significant interrelationship between expectation and behavior. The experimenter's (or teacher's) initial hypothesis enormously influences both the experiment's participants and the experiment's results. (The leading researchers in this area were Rosenthal and his colleagues in the late 1960s.)

In 1969, Rosenthal and Jacobson extended their laboratory research in "self-fulfilling prophecies" to a real classroom situation. They tested a group of elementary students and told the teachers that certain of those students "showed great promise." In reality, those students named had been selected at random. The experimenters then retested the students at the end of the year. Those students identified as "promising" showed real and dramatic increases in their IQs as compared with the rest of the students. Certain aspects of the teacher's behavior had affected these "brighter" students.

Since this research, there have been several efforts to determine exactly which behaviors convey these differential expectations. Research has now identified a series of adult verbal and non-verbal interactions that affect student achievement, aspiration, and self-image. These teacher behaviors, identified by Equal Opportunity in the Classroom, a federally funded teacher-training program, are as follows:

- Equal distribution of response opportunities (frequency with which teacher calls on students to recite or perform)
- Affirmation or correction of student's performance
- Physical proximity of and to student
- Individual help from teacher
- Praise and reasons for praise of learning performance
- Personal interest and compliments by teacher
- Latency--time teacher provides between questions and answers
- Attentive listening to student
- Physical contact with student (arm or shoulder)
- Delving (providing clues) and higher-level questions to help students respond to questions
- Accepting or clarifying students' feelings
- Desisting--correcting behavior in a calm, courteous manner
- Expression of courtesy and respect in interaction with student

Sex-Differentiated Behaviors

Most of the above categories were arrived at through research showing differences in teacher interactions with high and low achievers, but these differences also are significant in teachers' differential behavior toward males and females. A detailed analysis by Lisa Serbin and her colleagues of teacher behavior in preschool classes has demonstrated that: (1) Teachers paid more attention to boys than to girls, regardless of whether the boys were misbehaving. (2) When boys asked questions, the teachers gave longer and more detailed answers and directions than they gave girls. (3) Teachers gave boys directions for doing things on their own, but more often than not they showed girls what to do instead of letting them do it on their own. (4) Girls are more likely to get positive reinforcement, pats on the head, and other affection-rewards from their teachers if they stand close to their teachers or behave dependently, while boys are as likely to get positive reinforcement from their teachers if they are close by or far away (Serbin et al., 1973). (5) Girls are more likely to stay with their teachers, and teachers are most likely to be in the areas of "fine motor skill" activities. If teachers do move to other activity areas (e.g., block areas, outside equipment areas), girls go to these areas. (6) There are correlations between the types of toys a child plays with and the child's later cognitive abilities (Connor and Serbin, 1979).

The teachers reported that they were completely unaware of rewarding boys for independence and activity while discouraging these behaviors in girls. Differing expectations manifested themselves in unconscious behaviors, verbal and non-verbal (smiles, a nod of the head, longer eye contact, pats on the head, etc.), which transmitted stereotyped messages to the students about how they should behave.

Specific Teacher Behaviors

Some researchers, Dweck and her colleagues in particular (Dweck and Gillard, 1975), have attempted to find out what specific behaviors in elementary school students elicit positive and negative feedback from teachers. They found different eliciting behaviors for the sexes. Boys receive most of their negative feedback or criticism for non-academic behavior--not sitting in their seats, making noise, etc. However, the positive feedback boys receive is most likely given for their academic work. For girls, the reverse pattern has been found. When a girl is given negative feedback, it is most likely for academic work. Girls receive positive feedback largely for non-academic tasks--having their work neat, being quiet, etc. Dweck has found evidence that if someone has received largely negative feedback, a failure experience will make the individual give up.

This has been called "learned helplessness." According to several studies, girls give up more easily after academic failure than boys, but if positive feedback for academic work is experimentally substituted, the learned helplessness can be eliminated.

It should be noted here that all of the above research has been done with female teachers, and there is no information as yet on whether male teachers treat students differently on the basis of gender. There are also no data to pinpoint the *causes* of teachers' differential behavior toward males and females. The research does, however, validate the profound effect of subtle differential behaviors: "Teachers who are aware of the circular sex differences/sex-differential reinforcement pattern can intervene and can stimulate each individual student to his/her fullest intellectual, social and physical potential" (Sargent, 1977, p. 408).

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READING 3

SEX DIFFERENCES IN EDUCATION

by Carol Nagy Jacklin, Stanford University

Adapted from materials developed by the Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education

INTRODUCTION

Do boys and girls differ in ways that are important to their education? If so, what are the causes of the differences? Should education be geared differently for boys and girls in order to achieve equality of education? Do teachers treat boys and girls differently? And if they do, is it because the children act differently, thus bringing out different responses from the teachers?

In the following paper I will review research relevant to these and related questions which bear on sex differences in education. In some areas much research has been done and our conclusions can be relatively firm. In other areas we will find very little research has been done and we will only be able to speculate about these questions.

CAUTIONS In all of the research, however, there are some general shortcomings that we must keep in mind: (1) All the discussion about sex differences focuses on *average* differences between males and females. There is *always* very much overlap between the sexes. (2) Most of the studies have been done on white middle-class American children. Therefore, many of our conclusions may not be generalizable further than that group. (3) The subtlest methodological problem is a bias in the research toward finding differences. In the social sciences, if you do not find a difference between groups, you usually can't publish your findings. Thus a researcher who finds a difference between boys and girls will have an easier time publishing the results than the same researcher when a difference is *not* found. If findings of no differences (or null findings) are published, they are usually a part of a larger study which found some group differences in another area. Null findings are thus difficult to locate even when they are in the literature. The null findings thus don't get into the titles or abstracts of papers and are not indexed. (4) After determining that some ability or behavior is a sex difference, we must then inquire into the reason or cause of that sex difference. It is easy to assume (and absolutely wrong to) that if we find a sex difference we have found an unlearned (or natural or "innate") difference. Again, the cause must be inquired into separately from the question of whether a difference exists. (For further discussion of these and other methodological problems in sex-differences research, see Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974, Chapter 1.)

Keeping all of these caveats in mind, we will now review the materials on sex differences related to education. The following review has two parts. In Part I we will consider intellectual sex differences and discuss some of the current research into the causes of these differences. In Part II we will consider sex differences in social behavior.

PART I. INTELLECTUAL SEX DIFFERENCES

There seem to be two intellectual sex differences: (1) verbal abilities and (2) spatial visualization.

VERBAL Girls get higher average scores on tests of verbal ability starting in about the junior high school years. These tests measure a variety of verbal skills, depending on the ages tested. Both boys' and girls' verbal abilities improve throughout high school, but girls' rate of improvement seems to be somewhat higher than boys'. These average differences are quite small. At the upper levels of test scores, there do not seem to be very different numbers of boys and girls, but at the lower levels of test scores, there seem to be more boys than girls (see Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974, for a detailed review).

SPATIAL VISUALIZATION Boys get higher average scores on tests of spatial visualization, again starting in about the junior high school years. These tests measure the ability to rotate objects of two and three dimensions mentally. This ability increases in both boys and girls throughout the high school years, but boys' rates of increase are higher than girls'. The average differences in spatial visualization are larger than the average differences in verbal abilities.

The Role of Math

Unlike verbal abilities, spatial visualization is not directly taught in the schools. There is evidence that spatial abilities can be directly and quickly taught. Spatial visualization seems to be learned indirectly in some courses (e.g., mathematics and drafting). One study (Fenema and Sherman, 1976) showed that sex differences in spatial abilities disappeared when the number of math courses taken by students was equated. (Boys take more math courses than girls.) The relationship between mathematical abilities and spatial visualization is not yet clear. Math teachers vary in the amount of verbal or visual instructions that they give. The textbooks used in mathematics and the tests of mathematical ability and achievement are also variable on this dimension.

Pitfalls of Measurement

Unfortunately, tests of many *other* intellectual abilities are usually either verbal tests or involve spatial visualization skills. Thus there are many intellectual abilities which are *not* sex differences, but the tests used in their measurement seem to produce a sex difference. For example, memory does not differ in boys and girls. But if what children are asked to remember are verbal materials, as is often the case, a sex difference favoring girls may be found. Similarly, analytic ability does not differ between the sexes. But if a test is used which is composed of visual-spatial items, a sex difference favoring boys will be found. Statistical methods can be used to "partial out" the effects of verbal or spatial abilities, in which case no sex differences are found. The same pitfalls of measurement exist in testing for creativity and learning. For both abilities, tests can be devised that would show sex differences, but the differences disappear if the verbal or spatial visualization sex differences are first equated.

POSSIBLE CAUSES

What is known of the causes of the sex differences in verbal and visual-spatial ability? Several possible social and biological causes have been suggested. I will here only briefly list areas of study that have been suggested as contributing to the sex differences. These are treated in detail in Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974. More recent references are given below.

1. Experience with toys (Serbin and Connor, 1979).

2. Socialization by teachers.

3. Socialization by peers. Just when intellectual sex differences appear (junior and senior high school age), peer pressure for sex-appropriate behaviors intensifies.

4. Genetic sex linkage. The relationship of parents' and children's scores on spatial ability tests had suggested a possible sex-linked genetic factor. However, more recent data (and re-evaluation of the older data) have not supported this position.

5. Differential brain organization--laterality differences. When one side of the brain solves problems more quickly (or more accurately) than the other side, the brain is said to be "lateralized" for that type of problem. There are sex differences in brain laterality. These differences have not been directly related to cognitive sex differences, but this is an active area of research.

6. Maturity rate. How quickly or slowly children mature may be related to their cognitive abilities, though psychologists have thus far been unsuccessful in making this link. Other work has also considered maturity rate as it affects brain laterality.

7. Hormones and cognitive ability. At puberty, hormone differences between the sexes increase. Some researchers have tried to relate hormones and cognitive abilities.

FEAR OF SUCCESS

One alleged sex difference related to intellectual abilities is achievement motivation. Some years ago "fear of success" was said to have been found in college women but not college men. Fear of success was measured by a projective test. Women and girls were asked to write a story following the first line "Anne was [at] the top of her medical school class." Men and boys were asked to write a story which started "John was [at] the top of his medical school class." It is true that women said terrible things happened to Anne and men said wonderful things happened to John. However, notice that different tests were given to women and men. More recently both the "Anne" and "John" stories have been given to women and men. Both men and women say that Anne has a hard time and John has an easy time. Thus, there are no sex differences but there are sex of story or "Sex of Stimuli" findings. The top of a medical school class who is female probably does have greater social pressures than a male. The sex of stimuli findings may reflect the real world today. One further problem with projective tests of "fear of success" is they have not been shown to relate to achievement behavior such as applying to graduate schools or medical schools. (For references and a further discussion see Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974.)

PART II. SOCIAL BEHAVIOR

AGGRESSION

The clearest sex difference in social behavior is aggression. Boys and men are more aggressive than girls and women. We mean by aggression the intent to hurt another. (Assertion is not the same as aggression. Assertion implies standing up for one's own rights, but not intending to hurt another.) How aggression is measured depends on the age of the subjects. In nursery-age children, aggression is usually very direct and physical, and thus easily measured. As children get older, verbal aggression becomes more common and physical aggression becomes less common. In girls there tends to be more verbal than physical aggression. In boys there tends to be more physical than verbal aggression. But these patterns are differential patterns *within* sex. When either verbal or physical aggression is compared between the sexes, males are more aggressive than females.

Why is this true? We know that aggression can be learned, and we know that there are strong differences in how much aggression is allowed within different cultures (and subcultures). Still, when research is done in other cultures we find males showing more aggression than females. In animal studies aggression has been linked to hormones. Greater amounts of the male hormone testosterone produce more aggression in male and female rodents and primates. However, we also know from animal studies that the male hormone testosterone (and probably other hormones as well) are themselves changed when primates have "success" or "failure" experiences. The relation of hormones to behavior and behavior to hormones is an active area of research (see Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974, for a review).

In school-age children, one area of research related to aggression is cooperation and competition. Whether boys or girls are more cooperative or competitive seems to depend upon the situation and/or culture. Some competitive situations have elements of aggression, but others do not. We cannot conclude that boys or girls are more cooperative or competitive.

DOMINANCE

A second related area of research is dominance behavior. "Toughness" hierarchies tend to develop in the early grades so that boys and girls can reliably tell you which kids are "tougher" than which others. But these hierarchies are mostly composed of boys. Hierarchies may grow out of different size play groups of boys and girls. Boys are more likely to play in larger groups than girls. In nursery school children without prior school experience, boys tend to play in groups of five, on the average, while girls tend to play in groups of two or three. These group experiences may have different effects. In groups, dominance hierarchies tend to develop. One possible precursor to the group-size phenomenon is whether the children are playing indoors or outdoors. This may in turn be subtly related to teacher behavior.

The relation of dominance behavior, hierarchies, and aggression is not well understood. We can conclude there is a reliable sex difference in this area, but we have only the beginnings of clues as to its development.

SOCIABILITY AND BEHAVIOR

Many other social behaviors do not show sex differences. (A fuller discussion with references can be found in Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974.) For example, consider sociability. It is widely believed that girls are somehow more social than boys, but there is no evidence that this is true. In very young infants, both boys and girls are more interested in social stimuli than nonsocial stimuli. Both boys and girls can identify and care about the feelings of others. Sharing behavior and helping behavior are similar in males and females. There are some "sex of stimuli" differences. That is, males and females are both more likely to help a female than a male. (These effects are more pronounced in adults than in children.) It may be the case that girls are more willing to comply with adult requests than boys, but boys are more willing to comply with peer requests than girls. But although there are small differences in patterns, both sexes are social.

FEAR AND TIMIDITY

There are some social behaviors that may or may not be sex differences. Fear and timidity are examples. When very young children are observed in frightening situations, few sex differences emerge. Some are fearful and others are not, but knowing the sex of the child does not help one to predict how timid the child is. When older children are given pencil and paper tests, asking them what they are afraid of, girls check off more things than boys. However, if lie scales are included in these tests (sometimes called "defensiveness" tests) boys score higher on the lie

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scales. In adults, too, women score higher on fear and anxiety questionnaires and men score higher on defensiveness scales. Both men and women say that women are more fearful, but observational studies do not find differences in behavior. What people say about themselves is called "self-attribution" or "self-perception" in psychology. How you perceive yourself may have a powerful effect even if your behaviors don't match your perceptions (see Bem and Bem, 1970, for a further discussion). In short, we cannot yet conclude whether fear and timidity are or are not sex differences. And we are left with aggression and dominance as the only clear sex differences in social behavior.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

There are, then, some sex differences in behavior that are relevant to education. There are many more abilities and attributes on which the sexes do not differ. The differences: verbal and spatial visualization abilities and aggression-dominance are average differences and there is much overlap between the sexes. We know these differences have many origins. Many social and possibly many biological factors are involved. Much more work needs to be done before we can pinpoint the developmental course of these differences.

There are many other areas of active research in which we still do not have answers. We don't yet know precisely how to change mathematics teaching, or if spatial visualization remedial courses should be given. We don't yet know precisely how to change teachers' own awareness of their behaviors toward boys and girls. But we must continue to learn as much as we can and to implement our knowledge as fast as we can, so that equality of education will become more than a law. Equality of education must become a reality.

NOTES

[1] There is an additional methodological problem in using test results from the school systems. Boys and girls drop out of school at different rates, and for different reasons. In general, more boys drop out of junior high school and high school, and low-scoring boys are more likely to drop out than high-scoring boys. If this fact isn't taken into account, unfair comparisons are made between boys and girls, since all of the girls will be

compared with an increasingly smarter (and smaller) group of boys. (Differential dropout rate can be corrected by the use of longitudinal data, but many studies have not taken this problem into account.)

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READING 4

BIOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF SEX DIFFERENCES

This Reading was prepared by Resources for Non-Sexist Environments, a federally funded WEEA project, to accompany EXPANDING OPTIONS, sex equity workshops for school communities, K-12.

INTRODUCTION

The biological aspects of sex differences pertain to physical distinctions in body processes (function) and body structure (composition) between males and females. The major source of clinical and experimental data in this area is by John Money and Anke Ehrhardt (1972). Money, Ehrhardt, and other associates at Johns Hopkins University consider a multidisciplinary approach to gender identity and focus on the *interaction of both heredity and environment*. Research in this area is inconclusive at present, yet offers a foundation from which more definitive data can be obtained and explored.

BIOLOGICAL BASICS

Money identifies the following as biological constants reflecting basic sex differences in function:

Women	Men
Menstruate	Impregnate
Gestate	
Lactate	

In addition there are other types of structural differences, which are described below.

A normal human has 23 pairs of chromosomes in each cell of the body, with one of the 23 pairs being the sex-chromosome pair. In the female, the sex-chromosome pair consists of two X chromosomes (XX). In the male, the sex-chromosome pair is XY. The egg and sperm each carry half of the normal number of chromosomes, with the egg always carrying an X chromosome and the sperm carrying either an X or a Y chromosome. It is the sperm, with its X or Y chromosome, that determines the makeup of the sex-chromosome pair, and therefore the sex of the child.

X and Y Chromosomes

Genes, which determine characteristics to be inherited, are located on all chromosomes. Certain genes are known to be carried on the sex chromosomes, resulting in sex-linked traits. Color blindness is the most common sex-linked human trait and is due to a recessive gene which is contained on the X chromosome. In a male, when this gene or another, such as the hemophilia gene, is found on the X chromosome, there is no corresponding normal gene on the Y chromosome that would be dominant over the "defective" gene. This results in the high incidence of red-green color blindness and hemophilia among males as compared with females. However, females can have color blindness or hemophilia when a "defective" gene exists on both X chromosomes.

It is hypothesized that this differing chromosomal structure is one of the reasons that males are more susceptible to pre-, peri-, and postnatal difficulties. (See Life Expectancy, below.) However, this theory of hormones and sex differentiation is undergoing intensive scientific investigation.

HORMONES

Current theory states that sex differentiation begins at conception with the dimorphism (two distinct forms) of the sex-determining chromosomes (X and Y). After approximately six weeks of gestation, different internal reproductive organs begin to develop. The reproductive system that develops (male or female) is determined by sex hormones. If androgen (male hormone) is released, the male system develops; if androgen is not released, the female system develops. The fetus will be female unless male hormones are present during this crucial stage. If the hormonal state of the fetus is disturbed during differentiation, sexual abnormalities in both appearance and behavior will result.

Puberty is another critical period. At this time, sex hormones establish sexual appearance and influence behavior. Until approximately thirteen years of age, plus or minus two years, the physical appearance of boys and girls, aside from differences in sex organs, remains relatively stable and similar. At puberty, hormones are released that cause the production of testosterone (male sex hormone) and estrogen (female hormone), which produce secondary sex characteristics.

Are hormones alone responsible for sex differentiation in behavior? Research evidence with animals and humans suggests that genes and hormones establish only a predisposition toward a particular sex identity prior to birth, which in turn is subject to later modification through learning. For further elaboration, refer to Money and Ehrhardt (1972).

Both males and females secrete the entire spectrum of steroid hormones. Males have higher levels of androgens (testosterone) and lower estrogen levels than females, yet both require androgens for a normal sex drive. Differences in hormonal levels at critical developmental periods are what affect later sexual appearance and behavior.

Premenstrual Tension

It has long been thought that premenstrual tension in women (physical and emotional) is inevitable, as a result of hormonal changes. This has not been found to be a constant, since some women experience discomfort while others do not. Cross-cultural studies further discount the notion that hormonal activity results in premenstrual tension. Cultural beliefs play a vital role in shaping consequent behaviors and reactions.

LIFE EXPECTANCY

There are approximately 105 male babies conceived for every 100 females. In the population at large there are today approximately 95 males for every 100 females.

From birth on, the rate of attrition is significantly higher for males. There are approximately 115 male fetal deaths for every 100 female deaths. At nearly every age level, from birth to death, the male mortality rate is significantly higher. Specifically, from birth to age 1 the male death rate is 33 percent higher; from age 20 to 24, the male death rate is more than 200 percent higher. After that, the male death rate is about 100 percent higher, or twice as high as that of females. In 1920, the female life expectancy was only one year higher than that for males. Today, the difference is almost eight years, and is increasing.

OTHER PHYSICAL DIFFERENCES

Females have more fat and less water in their bodies than males; males have more muscle tissue than females. Skeletal differences exist: males have wider shoulders, while females have broader hips.

Prior to adolescence males and females are similar in strength and size, but after adolescence males are stronger and taller. Males have a lower resting heart rate, higher systolic blood pressure, larger muscles, a greater capacity for carrying oxygen in the blood, larger heart and lungs (related to body size), and a greater capacity for neutralizing the chemical products of muscular exercise, such as lactic acid.

Growth patterns also differ, as female physical growth is less variable than that of males. The range of growth in a group of females at a specific age is narrower than the range in a group of males. On the average, females reach puberty two years earlier.

THE IMPACT OF SOCIALIZATION

Perhaps the most dramatic study reported by Money and Ehrhardt (1972) is the "Twin Study of Sex Reassignment." At age 7 months, one infant twin boy's penis was burned off accidently during circumcision. Doctors advised sex reassignment, which included genital reconstruction surgery, hormone replacement therapy, and professional guidance for the family. The parents began socializing the child as a daughter (dress, handling, name, reinforcement of sex-appropriate behaviors and interests, etc.). Six years later the girl (a boy at birth) behaved as a girl, and was not at all confused as to her sexual identity. The parents commented on the differences in their own behavior as well as their twin son's toward the daughter.

This study, as well as cases of hermaphroditism (a congenital condition in which the sex of the individual is not clearly differentiated as exclusively male or female) that involve changes in announced sex, illustrates the impact of early socialization on the child. Social factors such as the sex to which the child is assigned and reared can substantially modify biological predispositions. Children behave as they have been taught and reinforced to behave by those primarily responsible for daily confirmation of identity.

Money and Ehrhardt postulate that clear limits of masculine and feminine gender roles are important to enable the child to differentiate gender identity. After 18 months, it becomes increasingly difficult to change gender identity, which is established through learning via social

118

119

interaction and through differing expectations regarding male and female play, dress, and discipline.

Refer to the Reading "Sex Roles and the Socialization Process" for elaboration on the socializing factors affecting personality development and behavior.

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Maccoby, Eleanor E., and Carol Nagy Jacklin. The Psychology of Sex Differences. Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1974.

Money, John, and Anke A. Ehrhardt. Man and Woman, Boy and Girl. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1972.

ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT 4

PROCESS EVALUATION FORM

This Process Evaluation Form was prepared by Resources for Non-Sexist Environments, a federally funded WEEA project, to accompany EXPANDING OPTIONS, sex equity workshops for school communities, K-12.

INSTRUCTIONS: *To assess the effectiveness of the session, please circle the number that best indicates your response.*

1.	The organization of the session was:	7 6 5 4 3 2 1 excellent … poor
2.	The objectives of the session were:	7 6 5 4 3 2 1 clearly evident … vague
3.	The work of the facilitator(s) was:	7 6 5 4 3 2 1 excellent … poor
4.	The ideas and activities presented were:	7 6 5 4 3 2 1 very interesting … dull
5.	The coverage was:	7 6 5 4 3 2 1 adequate … inadequate
6.	My attendance at this session should prove:	7 6 5 4 3 2 1 very beneficial … of no benefit
7.	How involved were you in what went on in the session?	7 6 5 4 3 2 1 very involved … not involved
8.	How much do you feel you gave to the group?	7 6 5 4 3 2 1 a great deal … very little

Process Evaluation Form/page 2

9. Overall, I consider this session: 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
excellent poor

Additional comments and/or questions: ______________________

SESSION 2: PERSPECTIVES ON SEX ROLES

Elementary Teacher Workshop

GOALS: TO INCREASE AWARENESS OF THE PSYCHOLOGICAL AND BIOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF SEX ROLES

TO UNDERSTAND THE SOCIALIZATION PROCESS AND ITS IMPACT ON MALES AND FEMALES

GENERAL BUSINESS

10

Introduce yourself and any new participants.

Invite comments from the last session and on the homework.

Share resources (suggested list):

- Man and Woman, Boy and Girl, Money and Ehrhardt
- Beyond Sex Roles, Sargent
- The Forty-nine Percent Majority, David and Brannon, eds.
- The Psychology of Sex Differences, Maccoby and Jacklin

Present Session 2 goals and overview.

large group

Name tags
Sign-in sheet
Chalkboard
Newsprint
Masking tape
Markers
Overhead projector

Poster with Session 2 goals and overview

OBJECTIVE #1

Participants will list at least four biological differences between males and females.

BIOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVES

30

Define and post the word "biological." Definition: *Biological, as considered here, refers to internal and external physical differences in the male and female structures (such as skeletal differences) and differences in the sex functions of males and females.*

small group

In small groups, have participants generate a list of the biological differences between males and females, and record the list on newsprint.

Post the lists and conduct a large group consensus to complete a final list of biological differences and similarities.

Give the Mini-Lecture "Biological Aspects of Sex Differences," using the Transparencies, to clarify any questions or make any additions to participants' findings.

mini-lecture

MINI-LECTURE:
Biological Aspects of Sex Differences

transparency

TRANSPARENCY MASTERS:
Biological Basics

Similarities and Differences (Biological)

OBJECTIVE #2

Participants will identify at least three examples of mental health expectations that differ for males and females.

PSYCHOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVES:
EXPLODING THE MYTHS

Conduct a simulation of the Broverman study (1970) by forming three groups--A, B, and C. Assign them to separate areas of the room. Distribute the Worksheet "Psychological Descriptors." Assign tasks as follows:

WORKSHEET:
Psychological Descriptors

20

- Group A: Describe a healthy, mature female.
- Group B: Describe a healthy, mature male.
- Group C: Describe a healthy, mature adult.

Have each group compile a list of adjectives on newsprint. Do not allow groups to compare lists.

worksheet

Post the lists and conduct a large group discussion, addressing the following:

- What are the similarities and differences among the lists?
- What are the implications?
- What are the real/actual differences? (Rhetorical)

large group

OBJECTIVE #3

Participants will identify three role expectations for females and three for males.

Give the Mini-Lecture "Psychological Aspects of Sex Differences," using the Transparency.

Distribute the Reading "Psychological Aspects of Sex Differences," and respond to participants' questions and comments.

mini-lecture

transparency

MINI-LECTURE:
Psychological Aspects of Sex Differences

TRANSPARENCY MASTER:
Maccoby and Jacklin's Research Findings (1974)

READING:
Psychological Aspects of Sex Differences

SOCIALIZATION PROCESS

10 Give the Mini-Lecture "Sex Roles and the Socialization Process," using the Transparency.

mini-lecture

MINI-LECTURE:
Sex Roles and the Socialization Process

TRANSPARENCY MASTER:
Society and the Individual

10 Respond to participants' comments and questions.

SELECT OPTION

50

Select one of the following options:

Option 1: Show the film *Men's Lives.*

Option 2: Have a local resource person with experience and knowledge in men's socialization available to present perspectives on the male role.

Option 3: Select an appropriate film substitute.

optional

film

FILM:
Men's Lives
Projector
Screen

ALL OPTIONS

10

Conduct a discussion to identify the major themes of male/female role expectations.

Discuss the following questions: What are the costs and rewards of male role expectations? Of female role expectations? Share personal experiences and analyze where these messages come from.

large group

HOMEWORK

5

Assign the following Readings for the next session: "How Sex Roles Can Limit," "Realities of the Work World," and "PEER Summary of the Regulations for Title IX," as well as the Worksheet "Sexism in Education Quiz."

Preview the next session.

homework

READINGS:
How Sex Roles Can Limit

Realities of the Work World

PEER Summary of the Regulations for Title IX

WORKSHEET:
Sexism in Education Quiz

PROCESS EVALUATION

5

Conduct a process evaluation of the session, using the "Process Evaluation Form."

evaluation

ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT:
Process Evaluation Form

MINI-LECTURE: BIOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF SEX DIFFERENCES

This Mini-Lecture provides background information on the biological influences on males and females and looks at sex differences and similarities.

DIFFERENT, BUT EQUAL

As we consider the biological aspects of sex differences, we will refer to *physical* differences between the sexes and their relationship to gender identity. The major source of clinical and experimental data is John Money and Anke Ehrhardt's Man and Woman, Boy and Girl (1972). These authors emphasize a multidisciplinary approach to gender identity that focuses on the interaction of heredity and environment. Gender identity and biological considerations are issues undergoing intensive research at present. Whatever biological differences exist, it is important not to use them to justify "natural" inferiority and superiority of the sexes.

FUNCTION AND STRUCTURE

Physical differences between the sexes fall into two categories--body processes or *function* and body composition or *structure*. Money, from Johns Hopkins University, has identified the following as biological constants. They reflect functional differences between males and females.

- Women: menstruate, gestate, lactate
- Men: impregnate

Structural differences include *skeletal*, *genetic*, and *hormonal* differences. Females have more fat, less water, and broader hips, and reach puberty, on the average, two years earlier than males. Males have more muscle tissue and wider shoulders, and show more variability in physical growth than females.

[Use the Transparencies "Biological Basics" and "Similarities and Differences" to illustrate.]

GENETIC DIFFERENCES

A normal human has 23 pairs of chromosomes in each cell, with one pair being the sex chromosome pair. In the female, the pair consists of XX chromosomes. In the male, the chromosome pair is XY. The egg and sperm each carry half of the normal number of chromosomes. The egg always carries an X chromosome, and the sperm carries either an X or a Y. Thus, the sperm, with its X or Y chromosome, determines the sex of the child.

Genes, which determine the characteristics to be inherited, are located on all chromosomes. Certain genes are carried on the sex chromosomes. This results in sex-linked traits such as color blindness and hemophilia. When these genes occur, they are carried by the X chromosome. In the male, there is no corresponding dominant gene on the Y chromosome to suppress the "defective" gene. This results in the high incidence of color blindness and hemophilia in males as compared to females. It is hypothesized that due to chromosomal structure, males are more susceptible to pre-, peri-, and postnatal difficulties.

HORMONES

In human gestation, after approximately six weeks, different internal reproductive organs begin to develop as determined by the *sex hormones*. The female system will develop unless *androgen* (male hormone) is released, causing the male system to develop. Sexual abnormalities in appearance and behavior will result if the hormone state of the fetus is disturbed during this period.

Sex hormones are also influential in establishing adult appearance during the critical period of *puberty*. Until puberty, the physical appearance of boys and girls is relatively similar and stable, aside from differences in sex organs. At puberty, hormones are released that cause secondary sex characteristics to develop. Estrogen and progesterone are female sex hormones; androgens are male sex hormones.

Research with animals and humans suggests that genes and hormones establish a *predisposition* toward a particular behavior prior to birth. This predisposition may be modified through learning. Cultural beliefs play a significant role in shaping behavior.

TWIN STUDY

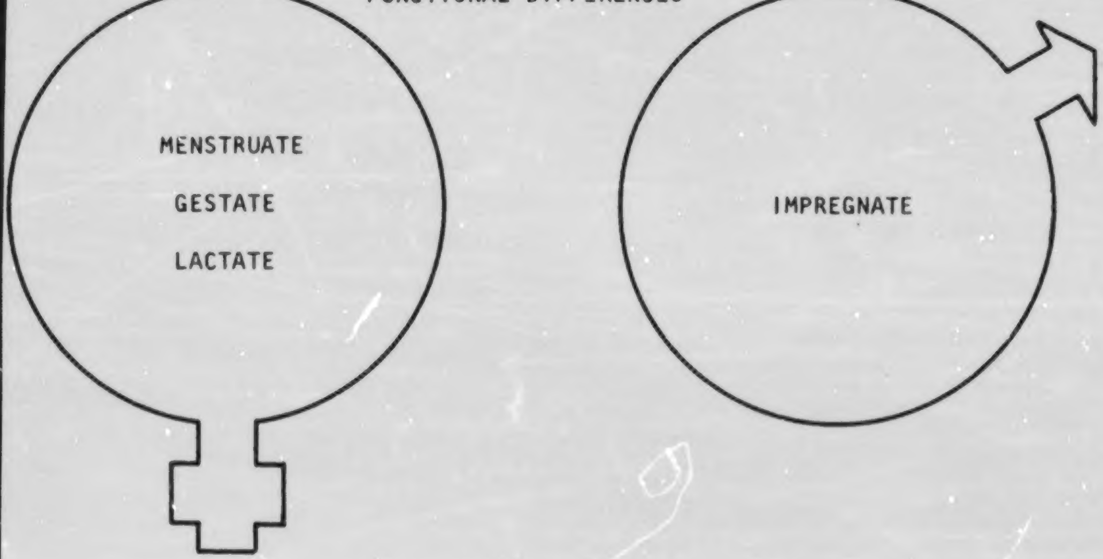
The sex reassignment of a male identical twin described by Money and Ehrhardt (1972) demonstrates the impact that learning has on gender identity. At seven months of age, one boy's penis was accidentally burned off during circumcision. Doctors advised sex reassignment, which included genital reconstruction surgery, hormone replacement, and professional guidance for the family. The parents socialized the child as a daughter. Six years later the girl (a boy at birth) behaved as a girl and was not confused as to her gender identity.

This study and others illustrate that *social factors* such as the gender to which a child is assigned can substantially modify biological predisposition.

TM 3

BIOLOGICAL BASICS

FUNCTIONAL DIFFERENCES



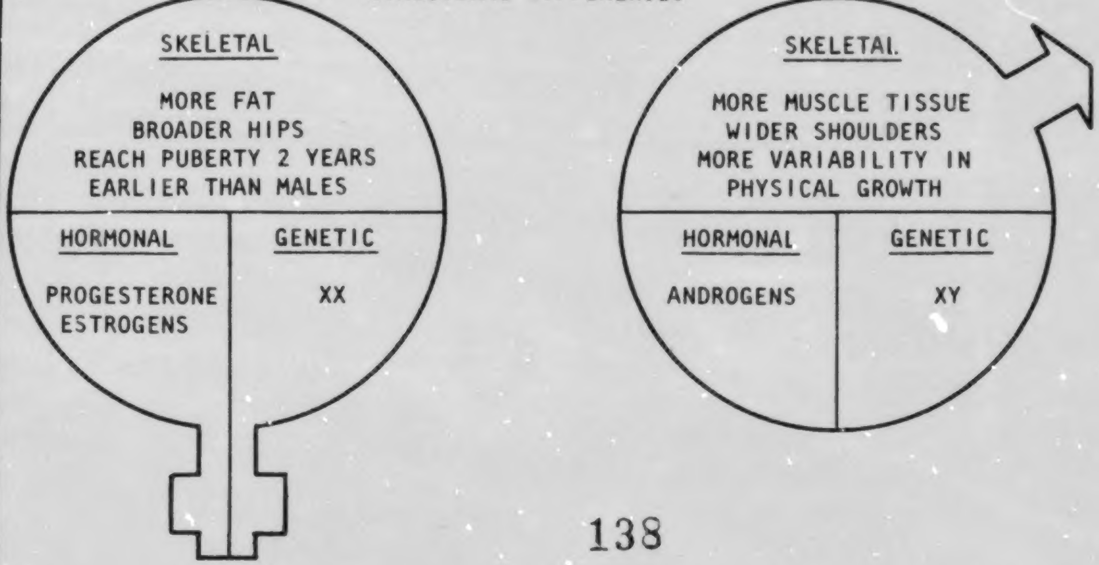
MENSTRUATE

GESTATE

LACTATE

IMPREGNATE

STRUCTURAL DIFFERENCES



SKELETAL

MORE FAT
BROADER HIPS
REACH PUBERTY 2 YEARS
EARLIER THAN MALES

HORMONAL

PROGESTERONE
ESTROGENS

GENETIC

XX

SKELETAL

MORE MUSCLE TISSUE
WIDER SHOULDERS
MORE VARIABILITY IN
PHYSICAL GROWTH

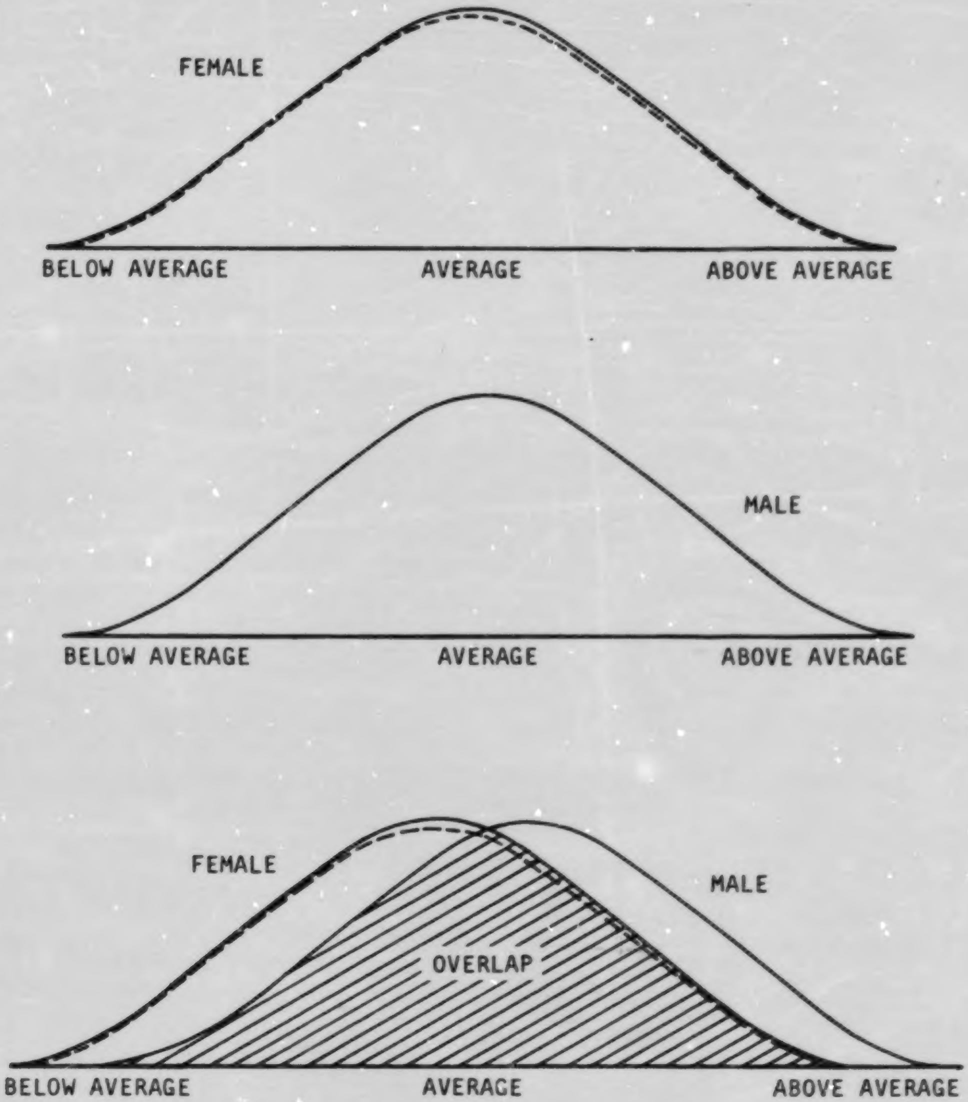
HORMONAL

ANDROGENS

GENETIC

XY

SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES



WORKSHEET 3

PSYCHOLOGICAL DESCRIPTORS

Use this Worksheet as a guide to compile a list of descriptors of significant human characteristics.

NONAGGRESSIVE . . . . AGGRESSIVE
DEPENDENT . . . . INDEPENDENT
UNEMOTIONAL . . . . EMOTIONAL

OBJECTIVE . . . . SUBJECTIVE
DOMINANT . . . . SUBMISSIVE
NOT EXCITABLE . . . . EXCITABLE

PASSIVE . . . . ACTIVE
NOT COMPETITIVE . . . . COMPETITIVE
ILLOGICAL . . . . LOGICAL

WORLDLY . . . . HOME-ORIENTED
DIRECT . . . . INDIRECT
CAUTIOUS . . . . ADVENTUROUS

NEVER CRIES . . . . CRIES EASILY
FOLLOWER . . . . LEADER
UNSURE . . . . SELF-CONFIDENT

NOT AMBITIOUS . . . . AMBITIOUS
HANDLES FEELINGS . . . . HANDLES IDEAS
GENTLE . . . . ROUGH

NOT TALKATIVE . . . . TALKATIVE
TACTFUL . . . . BLUNT
NEAT HABITS . . . . SLOPPY HABITS

QUIET . . . . LOUD
LIKES MATH . . . . DISLIKES MATH
TOUGH . . . . TENDER

UNCONCERNED ABOUT APPEARANCE	CONCERNED ABOUT APPEARANCE	EASILY INFLUENCED	NOT EASILY INFLUENCED
UNAWARE OF OTHERS' FEELINGS	AWARE OF OTHERS' FEELINGS	SKILLED IN BUSINESS	NOT SKILLED IN BUSINESS
FEELINGS NOT EASILY HURT	FEELINGS EASILY HURT	MAKES DECISIONS EASILY	DOESN'T MAKE DECISIONS EASILY

MINI-LECTURE: PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF SEX DIFFERENCES

This Mini-Lecture covers the fundamental aspects of psychological differences and similarities between females and males.

PSYCHOLOGY AND RESEARCH

When considering the various psychological aspects of sex differences, we will look only at behavior which is *observable*. The field of psychology does also include theories regarding the sources or causes of behavior, but these theories are based on *inferences*, which are developed through observation and speculation. Causes of behavior can only be *hypothesized*.

Research data in the area of sex-role stereotyping deal with the *average* differences between males and females as a group. It is important to note here that there are always more differences among males and among females than between the average male and average female. [Use the Transparency "Maccoby and Jacklin Research Findings to illustrate the foregoing and then discuss.]

FOUR CONSISTENT DIFFERENCES

Two Stanford psychologists, Maccoby and Jacklin (1974), spent three years reviewing and interpreting over 1,400 research studies in the area of sex differences. Their work showed only four behaviors that were consistently different for females and males. It is not known whether these differences are *innate* or *learned*. They are as follows [use the Transparency to illustrate]:

- Males demonstrated more aggressive behavior, both physically and verbally.
- Males performed better at visual-spatial tasks.
- Males excelled in mathematical ability.
- Females showed earlier verbal facility and demonstrated greater verbal ability.

Note: One behavior thought to be particularly sex-related was nurturance. Yet there is still no conclusive evidence to identify nurturance as a sex difference.

COGNITIVE DIFFERENCES

During childhood, males and females demonstrate similar visual-spatial, verbal, and mathematical abilities. At age 11 or 12, differences begin to develop, with males demonstrating greater ability at visual-spatial and mathematical tests, and females showing greater verbal ability.

SOCIAL DIFFERENCES

Males have been found to be more aggressive (physically and verbally) in all cultures where aggressive behavior has been observed. The primary recipients of male aggression are other males. At Stanford, Bandura used incentive reinforcement of aggression. He found that young females increased in aggression when they were positively reinforced for demonstrating aggressive behavior.

This study, as well as others, points to the age-old question and debate: How much of a particular behavior is innate and how much is learned?

MENTAL HEALTH

The Broverman study (1970) with mental health professionals demonstrated a double standard in criteria for mental health. The subjects were divided into three groups, each asked to describe a different concept:

- Group 1 described a healthy, mature, socially competent adult (sex unspecified).
- Group 2 described a healthy, mature, socially competent man.
- Group 3 described a healthy, mature, socially competent woman.

There was a positive correlation between the concepts of healthy adult and healthy male, but a negative correlation between the concepts of healthy adult and healthy female. In summary, healthy adults and healthy males were expected to be independent and aggressive, and to control emotion. Healthy females were expected to be passive and dependent.

It would appear that mental health professionals (both males and female) expect their female clients to be less than healthy adults. Females are placed in the dilemma of trying to be "healthy, well-functioning adults" who are assertive and independent, while trying to be "healthy, well-functioning females" who are pleasing and somewhat dependent. In this description, female traits and adult traits are *antagonistic* to each other. In addition, stereotypic masculine traits are more socially desirable.

ANDROGYNY

The traditional concept of mental health needs re-evaluation. A new concept, psychological *androgyny*, has emerged to expand the range of acceptable behaviors for females and males.

Androgyny is a balanced expression of "masculine" and "feminine" traits to allow each sex the full range of human characteristics needed for individual actualization.

MACCOBY AND JACKLIN (1974) RESEARCH FINDINGS

- MALES DEMONSTRATED MORE AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR, BOTH PHYSICALLY AND VERBALLY.
- MALES PERFORMED BETTER AT VISUAL-SPATIAL TASKS.
- MALES EXCELLED IN MATHEMATICAL ABILITY.
- FEMALES SHOWED EARLIER VERBAL FACILITY AND DEMONSTRATED GREATER VERBAL ABILITY.

READING 5

PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF SEX DIFFERENCES

This Reading was prepared by Resources for Non-Sexist Environments, a federally funded WEEA project, to accompany EXPANDING OPTIONS, sex equity workshops for school communities, K-12.

INTRODUCTION

Psychology deals with such concepts as the mind, libido, ego and other emotional/mental constructs. These are inferred rather than observed structures and processes, hence open to dispute by those with differing theoretical orientations. The term "psychology," as used here, refers to behavior that is observable, and consequently available for testing validation. Causes of behavior can only be hypothesized at present, since research studies are often inconclusive and/or contradictory.

Research data and discussion deal with average differences between males and females. Each gender is treated as a generalized whole. Yet data show that there is always more variance *within* the groups of females and of males than exists *between* the average male and female.

In order to determine the realities of psychological sex differences, Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) spent three years compiling, reviewing and interpreting over 1,400 research studies published since 1965. The result of their work showed only four behaviors that were consistently different for males and females:

- Males demonstrated more aggressive behavior.

- Males performed better at visual-spatial tasks.

- Males excelled in mathematical ability.
- Females showed earlier verbal facility and demonstrated greater verbal ability.

Although these significant psychological differences exist, it is yet to be determined whether they are innate or learned. Furthermore, it must be remembered that psychological research is biased toward finding differences. Null findings are not often published.

AGGRESSION

Maccoby and Jacklin found that males were more aggressive, both physically and verbally, in all cultures where aggressive behavior had been observed. This sex difference is seen as soon as social play begins, at age two or two and a half. The primary recipients of male aggression are other males, rather than females.

Female Aggression

Although males do demonstrate more aggressive behavior, we do not know the reason, so the question is raised: How much of this is an innate sex difference and how much is learned? A study by Bandura at Stanford University (1965) used incentive reinforcement of aggression. The only significant finding was that there was an increase in girls' aggression when girls were positively reinforced for demonstrating observed aggressive behavior. Bandura interprets the results as demonstrating that girls know the behavior of boys, can and have learned it, and do not practice it for fear of punishment.

Aggression and Hormones

Aggression may also have a hormonal component. Various research studies have shown that experience affects certain hormones. In one study with monkeys, when the monkeys were given "success experiences," their testosterone levels increased, and when given failure, the levels decreased. This study demonstrated that experience (success and failure) can affect hormone levels, at least in monkeys.

NURTURANCE

The commonly held belief that females are innately more nurturing than males has not been documented definitively. Nurturance as a sex difference is as yet unconfirmed.

Reported evidence regarding nurturing behavior is inconclusive. Norma McCoy (1977) states that in most subhuman primates, as well as cross-culturally in humans, females demonstrate more nurturance than males. Yet Maccoby and Jacklin found no differences among white, middle-class Americans. Could the difference cited by Norma McCoy be the result of gestation and lactation, biologically placing the female in the primary nurturing role for the young child?

INTELLECTUAL ABILITIES

In childhood, males and females have similar visual-spatial, verbal, and mathematical abilities. At about age 11 or 12, differences begin to develop, with males demonstrating greater ability at visual-spatial and mathematical tasks and females showing greater verbal ability. There is little definitive evidence available from which to make conclusions as to the processes involved or from which to identify influencing factors.

MENTAL HEALTH

A study done by Broverman, Broverman, and Clarkson at Worcester State Hospital (1970) demonstrated a double standard in criteria for mental health as defined by mental health professionals. These included males and females from the fields of psychiatry, psychology, and social work.

Subjects in this study were asked to participate in a project to identify criteria for mental health. Three groups were formed with equal numbers of male and female subjects representing the various mental health disciplines. Each group was given the same 122-item list of bipolar adjectives (e.g., very aggressive, not at all aggressive) and asked to choose 20 adjectives to describe the concept assigned to that group. Each group thought that the same concept was being described by the other groups. However, each group rated a different concept:

- Group 1 described a healthy, mature, socially competent *adult* (sex unspecified).
- Group 2 described a healthy, mature, socially competent *man*.
- Group 3 described a healthy, mature, socially competent *woman*.

The findings demonstrated a positive correlation between the concepts of healthy adult and healthy male, and a negative correlation between the concepts of healthy adult and healthy female. In summary, healthy males were described as healthy adults, and healthy females were not.

Double Standard

What does this double standard mean? Are healthy women expected to behave as adults or as stereotypically passive, dependent people? Are healthy men and adults to be primarily aggressive and independent? Is this concept of a "healthy adult" and "healthy man" a realistic goal to strive for, or does it suggest an adjustment to existing sex roles rather than toward maximum realization of individual potentials? This study provides evidence that mental health professionals do accept and probably unintentionally reinforce sex-role stereotypes, perhaps to the disservice of their clients, female and male.

Symptoms of Psychological Distress

A study published in 1970 by the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, *Selected Symptoms of Psychological Distress*, substantiates an earlier study by the Joint Commission on Mental Health and Illness. The results reported can be summarized as follows for nonhospitalized American adults: greater distress with life and corresponding symptoms are reported by women than by men, with more women being diagnosed as neurotic. Other studies report that women received psychotherapeutic services in greater numbers than men, both in- and out-patient, at private and public facilities. Society apparently expects women to seek professional help with life's problems. Does this reinforce the stereotype of the female as maintaining her dependence on a benefactor (often male)? Are mental health professionals truly addressing the needs of the female or only perpetuating her helplessness?

Differing Symptoms

Studies of childhood behavior problems show that boys are most often referred to child guidance clinics for aggressive, antisocial behavior, while girls are referred for personality problems such as fears, shyness, and feelings of inferiority. Boys are diagnosed as schizophrenic and learning disabled more frequently than girls. Psychiatric symptomatology for adults parallels childhood problems: men's symptoms are likely to be hostility toward others and pathological self-indulgence such as rape or drinking. Women's symptoms reflect self-critical and self-destructive sets of attitudes, e.g., depression, confusion, and self-depreciation.

Women Seek Care

If the number of physical and psychiatric illnesses is held constant for men and women, women are more likely to seek medical and psychiatric care. Given (1) the pressure on men to succeed, (2) societal sanctions against male displays of emotionality and weakness, (3) lower life expectancy and the greater number of male deaths at every age, (4) greater incidence among males of violence and antisocial behaviors resulting in legal action, is the male stereotype an effective mode of living?

PSYCHOLOGICAL ANDROGYNY

Perhaps our concept of mental health must be re-evaluated to ensure that our institutions foster and reinforce the maximization of each individual's potential. A new concept, psychological androgyny, has emerged in response to this need. Psychological androgyny means expanding the range of behaviors available to and acceptable for females and males (Bem, 1974). The origin of the word "androgyny" typifies this concept, "andr-" male, and "gyne" female. According to this concept, both females and males can share attributes formerly identified with one sex or the other:

Male profile:	Looks out for self. Gets things done.
Female profile:	Relates to other human beings (sensitive). Depends on others for emotional support.
Androgynous profile:	Any individual, male or female, who expresses the full range of human characteristics in the proportions desired or needed for individual actualization.

EXPLORING NEW AVENUES

Psychology and psychiatry have reinforced our sex-role stereotypes for almost a century, helping as well as hindering effective adaptation to life for both males and females, children and adults. Few facts have been gathered as to the "true" nature of females and males, since recent research has been able to indicate only observed behavioral end products, and not causes and/or processes. In recent years psychology and psychiatry have begun to question our long-held beliefs and expectations, exploring new avenues in dealing with life's problems. The information currently available ought to serve as an impetus toward re-evaluation for all of us.

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MINI-LECTURE: SEX ROLES AND THE SOCIALIZATION PROCESS

This mini-lecture provides basic information concerning sex role learning. It includes definitions of key terms and a discussion of family and school as primary agents of socialization.

SEX ROLES AND STEREOTYPING

By the age of three, children know their sex roles. A sex role is a set of behaviors and expectations taught and reinforced by society. Concepts of "masculinity" and "femininity" vary from culture to culture, as do sex-role expectations and responsibilities. Many people assume that sex roles are related to inherent differences between females and males, but researchers have found little evidence to support this assumption. In this session we will look at the "how" of sex-role socialization, or *learning*.

Our roles as female and male reflect an outward statement of our *gender identity*. When a gender label limits development to narrowly defined behavior or characteristics, we call that *stereotyping*. The consequences are damaging and stifling to individual potential and talent.

Researchers have found that sex roles are acquired in the following ways:

- Through the influence and imitation of *role models*
- As a result of selective *reinforcement* of sex-appropriate behaviors
- Through the conceptual *understanding* of masculine and feminine behaviors, and the conscious choice by the individual to conform to the appropriate roles

AGENTS OF SOCIALIZATION

Sex-role socialization, or the teaching of sex-role behaviors, is carried out by parents, teachers, literature and textbooks, peers, social institutions, and the media. Every part of a society teaches individuals to conform to cultural expectations. The socialization process is ongoing, as society dictates the parameters for proper behaviors for every stage of our lives, from childhood to old age. [Use the Transparency "Society and the Individual" to demonstrate.] The following lists illustrate ways in which the family and school function as primary agents:

SCHOOL

- instructional programs, such as course titles, unequal funding of athletic programs, unequal treatment in guidance and career planning
- differential staffing patterns
- classroom management
- teacher expectations and behaviors
- instructional materials

HOME

- parental expectations and behaviors
- role models--adults, siblings, peers
- parent-assigned activities and responsibilities
- television and children's literature, including fairy tales
- toys and games

[Have participants suggest other examples.] As we become aware of the circular pattern of sex-role reinforcement, we can intervene to stimulate each student to reach full individual development.

SOCIETY AND THE INDIVIDUAL

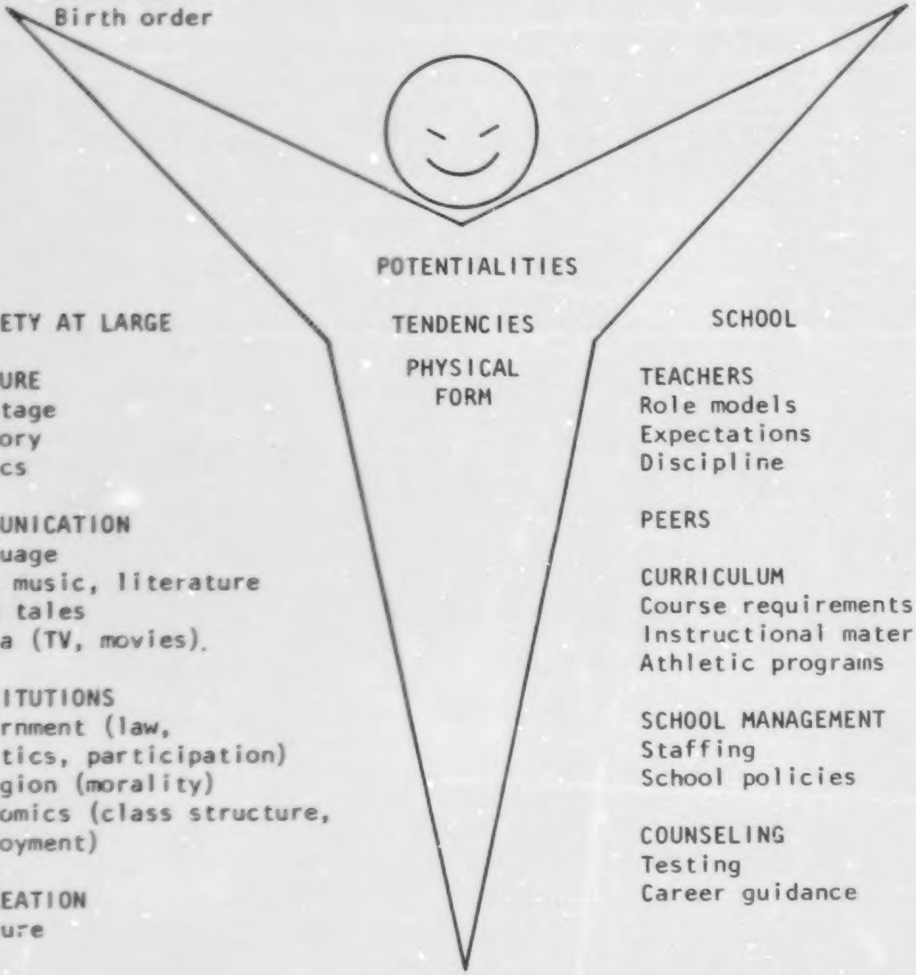
FAMILY

PARENTS
Role models
Expectations
Discipline

SIBLINGS
Birth order

ACTIVITIES
Responsibilities
Toys and games
Recreation
Books

PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT
Colors/decoration
Space
Clothes



POTENTIALITIES

TENDENCIES

PHYSICAL
FORM

SOCIETY AT LARGE

CULTURE
Heritage
History
Ethics

COMMUNICATION
Language
Art, music, literature
Folk tales
Media (TV, movies).

INSTITUTIONS
Government (law,
politics, participation)
Religion (morality)
Economics (class structure,
employment)

RECREATION
Leisure

SCHOOL

TEACHERS
Role models
Expectations
Discipline

PEERS

CURRICULUM
Course requirements
Instructional materials
Athletic programs

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT
Staffing
School policies

COUNSELING
Testing
Career guidance

READING 6

HOW SEX ROLES CAN LIMIT

This Reading was adapted by Resources for Non-Sexist Environments from materials prepared by Project Awareness.

INTRODUCTION

Sex roles limit males and females differently. The effects of the limitations vary in intensity, degree, and general area. Men and boys seem to be more limited in the area of the affective domain and in interpersonal relationships, whereas women and girls seem to experience greater limitations in the areas of academic achievement, career aspiration, and self-esteem.

This Reading is divided into two major sections: Academic and Career Limitations, and Personal and Social Limitations. The two areas are considered first with reference to males, then to females. The Reading is sex segregated so that the subtle, isolated instances can provide a comprehensive perspective. These key studies were drawn together in a list, meant to be representative rather than inclusive, to gain some sense of the growth that has been stunted and of the promise that has been denied.

ACADEMIC AND CAREER LIMITATIONS--MALES

ACADEMIC

- At age six, when a boy enters first grade, he may be twelve months behind his female counterpart in developmental age, and by age nine this discrepancy has increased to eighteen months. Thus he is working side by side with a female who not only may be bigger than he, but who seems more competent to handle school (Bentzen, 1966).

- Among boys and girls of comparable IQ, *girls* are likely to receive higher grades. Also, boys who do as well as girls on achievement tests get *lower* grades in school. In fact, throughout elementary school, two-thirds of all grade repeaters are *boys* (Peltier, 1968).

- A study of 12,000 boys produced some interesting findings: the research correlated masculinity scores on the California Psychological Inventory with the students' school grades. It was found that the higher a boy scored on the masculine scale, the lower his report card average tended to be. The author of this study came to the conclusion that many schools and academies themselves must be dehumanizing and unmanly places. He suggested that boys who succeed in school must do so by violating many codes of honor and the norms of "boy culture."

- Boys drop out of school more often than girls, allegedly due to lack of interest and the desire for paid work. Girls reportedly leave due to personal reasons, e.g., marriage, illness, pregnancy (Fitzsimmons et al., 1969).

- Boys are the maladjusted, the low achievers, the truants, the delinquents, the inattentive, the rebellious. National delinquency rates are five times higher among boys than girls, and in New York City, 63 percent of all dropouts are boys.

- Boys receive nine to ten times as many prohibitory control messages (warnings like "That's enough talking, Bill," and "Put away that comic, Joe") as their female classmates. Moreover, when teachers criticize boys, they are more likely to use harsh or angry tones than when talking with girls about an equivalent misdemeanor.

- Boys perceived their teachers' feelings toward them to be less favorable than those toward girls, and teachers rated girls more favorably than boys on behavioral and personality characteristics (Davidson and Lang, 1960).

- In a study by Meyer and Thompson (1965), boys received more praise as well as more disapproval from their teachers than girls did.

- Some researchers have found that three times more boys than girls have trouble with reading (Frazier and Sadker, 1971).

- The male "physical striver" considers it masculine not to care what his teachers think. "Look how much I got away with" is far more masculine than an enthusiastic "Look how much I learned!" Reading difficulty itself is perpetuated by the fear of studying, and by the fear of appearing girlish (Farrell, 1974).

CAREER

- Our society offers a wide variety of potential careers for men, but there are some restrictions, especially for males who consider becoming nurses, dancers, secretaries, or teachers of very young children. They are obligated to absorb social criticism or change their decisions (Sadker, n.d.).
- Although acceptable career options for men are socially restricted, at least one characteristic of any acceptable occupation remains constant: It must pay well. The size of a man's paycheck is a measure of his worth and masculinity (Sakder, n.d.).
- Because of the pressure to earn, earn, earn, men often find themselves victims of the career lock-in. With the family's financial well-being totally in his hands, a man's decisions are no longer his own (Sadker, n.d.).
- The other side of the career lock-in is the leisure and retirement lock-out. Without work, men are without direction or purpose. The suicide rate for retired men is several times that of retired women (Sadker, n.d.).
- Almost nothing in the prefatherhood learning of males is oriented in any way to train them for parenting. They are actively discouraged as children from play activities involving baby surrogates, and, except in rare instances of large families with few or no older sisters, they are not usually required to help much in the daily care of younger siblings (Chafetz, 1974).

PERSONAL AND SOCIAL LIMITATIONS--MALES

MENTAL HEALTH

- Most boys build expectations that are higher than their achievements. Boys who score high on sex-appropriate behavior also score highest in anxiety. Striving to maintain a masculine role is stressful enough to be associated with manifested anxiety (Gray, 1957).

- It is common knowledge within the mental health profession that the incidence of schizophrenia (childhood and adult forms) for males is three to four times as high as that for females. In state and county mental hospital units for children, boys outnumber girls by approximately 50 percent. Under the age of 15, males are diagnosed as schizophrenics 42 percent more frequently than girls.

NURTURANCE AND INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

- One of the first things an American male learns is to hide his emotions; indeed, the one proscriptive element of the male role concerns the injunction against being warm, open, tender, emotional, and vulnerable. "That's all right for women, but 'men' are not like that" (David and Brannon, 1976).

- Men suffer in their relationships with children. These relationships, already attenuated because of the father's involvement with work, have little closeness and intimacy. However, it is in men's relationships with each other that the proscription against having "feminine" feelings is most costly (David and Brannon, 1976).

- Elementary school pupils (9-12) were given the Elementary Form of Mental Health Analysis. Girls scored higher than boys on total assets (close personal relationships, interpersonal skills, social participation, satisfying work and recreation, adequate outlook and goals), and lower on total liabilities.

AGGRESSION

- Six volumes of studies document that violence in American society is taught, learned, and acted upon. Boys are actually encouraged by parents to be aggressive, while girls are not. Almost all television models encourage aggression in men. Childhood aggression predictably results in continued, undisguised aggression when boys become men (Farrell, 1974; Liebert, 1972).

- While everybody seems to know that men commit significantly more crimes, it is perhaps less well known that they are also significantly more likely to be the victims. Males are the victims of aggravated assault 14 percent more often than women; men are 104 percent more often the victims of burglary, 150 percent more often the victims of larceny, and 45 percent more often the victims of robbery. According to the 1972 *Uniform Crime Reports*, men were the victims of murder in approximately 80 percent of cases.

- When boys are referred for professional help, it is generally because of deviant behavior that externalizes hostility toward others or the environment (McIntyre, 1972).

CONFORMITY

- Demands that *boys* conform to social notions of what is manly are reinforced with much more vigor than similar attitudes with respect to *girls*. Several research studies, using preschool children as their subjects, indicate that boys are generally aware of what is suitably "masculine," and therefore carefully restrict their interests and activities accordingly, while girls amble gradually in the direction of "feminine" patterns for five more years.

- Expected behavior for young boys usually is communicated in terms of what not to do, rather than in terms of how they should behave. This occurs both at home and in the classroom. The damage of stereotyping may be as irreparable for the *boy* as for the *girl*. When boys learn stereotyped male behavior there is a 20 percent better chance that it will stay with them for life than when girls learn stereotyped behavior (Mussen, 1962).

ROLE MODELS

- Given the relative absence of male figures during his waking hours, the male toddler is hard pressed to find out what he is supposed to do. When the father is present, he often surpasses the mother in punishing the boy for being too "feminine." The boy finds out that "boys don't cry," "boys don't cling," and so on, but often on the basis of negative sanctions from parents and peers (Chafetz, 1974; Lynn, 1969).

- Because of the relative absence of fathers from boys' experience, the elementary-aged boy looks to his peers to fill in the gaps in his information about his role as a male. Since his peers have no better sources of information than he has, all they can do is pool the impressions and anxieties they derive from the media and their early training. Thus, we find overemphasis on physical strength and athletic skills, with almost complete omission of tender feelings or acceptance of responsibility toward those who are weaker.

HEALTH

- According to recent statistics, more males than females suffer from serious diseases, both infectious and stress-related. What is more, men are more likely to die from these maladies. Men are four to five times more likely than females to die from bronchitis, emphysema, or asthma. Pneumonia and influenza are fatal for males 64 percent more often than for females; and there are twice as many male as female tubercular patients in hospitals. According to 1975 figures from the American Cancer Society, the annual death rate for males from cancer is almost 40 percent higher.

- Chafetz correlates the higher rates of alcohol and drug abuse with the pressures of the male sex role. Males also have a higher suicide rate than females. "The proscription on expressing emotions entailed in the masculine role definition probably exacerbates the stresses inherent in the obligation to support a family--financially and emotionally--and to succeed in an often highly competitive 'rat race'" (Chafetz, 1974).

ACADEMIC AND CAREER LIMITATIONS--FEMALES

ACADEMIC

- In the early elementary years, girls typically outperform boys, especially in reading and verbal skills. Developmentally, girls start off ahead of boys. They begin speaking, reading, and counting sooner; in the early grades they are even better in math. However, during the high school years, a different pattern emerges, and girls' performance on ability tests begins to decline. Indeed, male students exhibit significantly more IQ gain from adolescence to adulthood than their female counterparts do (Maccoby, 1966).

- A report of the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) indicates major disparities in educational achievement of males and females, with males outperforming females in four major subject areas: mathematics, science, social studies, and citizenship (NAEP, 1975).

- At age nine, boys and girls show understandings in these subjects that are fairly equal. However, by 13, young women begin a decline in achievement that continues into adulthood. Only in writing and music do females outperform males (NAEP, 1975).
- Along with the drop in achievement, there is a trend for girls' IQ scores to decline in late adolescence and early adulthood.
- Although women earn much better high school grades than men do, they are less likely to believe that they have the ability to do college work (Cross, 1968).
- Of the brightest high school graduates who do not go to college, 75 to 90 percent are women (Women's Equity Action League, n.d.).
- Studying mathematics is essential if a female wants to reach the higher levels of a career or discipline, even in fields that are traditionally female, such as social science, nursing, and the humanities. Yet in high school only 40 percent of college-bound females study math for three or more years, compared to 60 percent of males.
- College women respond negatively to women who have achieved high academic or vocational success, and at times display an actual desire to avoid success (Horner, 1969).
- In 1900, women earned 6 percent of all doctoral degrees; in 1920, 15 percent; but by 1968, only 13 percent. In 1977, the trend showed an upswing, with women earning almost 25 percent of all doctorates (WEAA, 1978).
- College women believe that men desire a woman who is extremely passive and who places wifely and familial duties above her own personal and professional development (Steinman, Levi, and Fox, 1964).

CAREER ASPIRATIONS

- By the time they are in the fourth grade, girls envision only four occupations open to them: teacher, nurse, secretary, or mother. Boys of the same age do not view their occupational potential through such restrictive glasses (O'Hara, 1962).
- By the ninth grade, 25 percent of boys and only 3 percent of girls are considering careers in science or engineering (Bem and Bem, 1970).

- A decline in career commitment has been noted in girls of high school age. This decline is related to their feelings that male classmates disapprove of a woman using her intelligence (Hawley, 1971).
- In a survey conducted in 1966 throughout the state of Washington, 66.7 percent of boys and 59 percent of girls stated that they wished to have careers in professional occupations. However, 57 percent of the boys and *only 31.9 percent of the girls stated that they actually expected to be working in such an occupation* (Slocum and Boles, 1968).

ECONOMIC

- More than two-thirds of the poor over age 65 are women.
- The largest body of workers not covered by social security is homemakers. There are no social security credits for the homemaker's unpaid labor, so that her credits are tied to the breadwinner. The pitfalls of this dependency are many, especially after a divorce or widowhood before age 60.

See the Reading "Realities of the Work World" for additional information regarding employment.

PERSONAL AND SOCIAL LIMITATIONS--FEMALES

MENTAL HEALTH

- On the Bernreuter Personality Inventory, norms show that women are more neurotic and less self-sufficient, more introverted and less dominant than men (Bernreuter, 1932). Later studies have had similar results, with women reporting higher levels of neuroticism and extroversion (Hannah, Storm, and Caird, 1965).
- A study published in 1970 by the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, *Selected Symptoms of Psychological Distress*, substantiates an earlier study published in 1960 by the Joint Commission on Mental Health and Illness. The results reported for nonhospitalized American adults can be summarized as follows: greater distress with life and corresponding symptoms are reported by more women than by men, with more women being diagnosed as neurotic. Other studies report that women received psychotherapeutic services in greater numbers than men, both in- and out-patient, in private and public facilities (U.S. DHEW, 1970).

- Studies of childhood behavior problems show that boys are most often referred to child guidance clinics for aggressive, antisocial behavior, while girls are referred for personality problems such as fears, shyness, and feelings of inferiority. Boys are diagnosed as schizophrenic and learning disabled more frequently than girls. Psychiatric symptomatology for adults parallels childhood problems: men's symptoms are likely to be hostility toward others and pathological self-indulgence such as rape or drinking, while women's symptoms reflect a self-critical and self-destructive set of attitudes, e.g., depression, confusion, and self-depreciation.

- More married women than married men show phobic reactions, depression, and passivity, greater than expected frequency of symptoms of psychological distress, and mental health impairment.

- Studies have shown that of the four categories--married men, married women, single men, single women--married men and single women are the happiest, while married women and single men are the unhappiest.

LOSS OF SELF-ESTEEM

- According to one study, women as well as men *do* consider the female sex inferior. Women college students were asked to make critical evaluations of articles written by professionals. The same article was presented, with a male author or a female author--John T. McKay or Joan T. McKay. Both male and female participants found an article more valuable--and its author more competent--when the article bore a male name as author.

- Sex-role stereotypes ascribe greater social value to masculine than to feminine behavior (Smith, 1939).

- Both male and female college students feel the characteristics associated with masculinity are more valuable and more socially desirable than those associated with femininity (McKee and Sherriffs, 1957).

- As boys and girls progress through school, their opinions of boys grow increasingly more positive and their opinions of girls increasingly more negative. Both sexes learn that boys are valued more by society (Smith, 1939).

- Fewer high school women than men rated themselves above average on leadership, popularity in general, popularity with the opposite sex, and intellectual as well as social self-confidence (Cross, 1968).

CONFORMITY

- Girls and women have also been found to be more conforming to others than boys and men (Mock and Tuddenham, 1971; Ender, 1966).
- Girls have also been found to adhere to the stereotype that they should seek help more often than boys (Einmerich, Goldman, and Shore, 1971).

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READING 7

REALITIES OF THE WORK WORLD

This Reading was researched and written by Lynn Stuvé, Interface Network, in collaboration with Gene Tendler, San Diego Unified School District, ROP. Interface Network is an Educational Nonprofit Corporation, San Diego, California.

INTRODUCTION

There are more women working than ever before in our nation's history. More women are participating in politics; more are managing, teaching, learning, *but*. . . .

Most Americans work in sex-segregated environments. Most women hold low-status jobs and draw lower salaries than men for the same work; many live in poverty. Inequity is the reality.

This reading documents the inequities of women and work. It covers labor force participation, marital and family status, occupational segregation, education and parity, the earnings gap, and women and poverty. Finally, it suggests a focal issue for the 1980s.

LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION

According to the Department of Labor, unprecedented numbers of women entered the work force during the 1970s. An average of over a million women were added to the work force each year during that decade, and the trend is continuing in the '80s. This rate of labor force participation signals the beginning of one of the most unique and dramatic periods of change in the role of women in our country. Most of this record gain occurred among women under the age of 35 (U.S. Dept. of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1979).

In 1981, about 46.8 million women were working for pay outside the home, comprising 43 percent of the country's entire labor force. About three out of every four employed women work full-time--35 hours or more per week (U.S. Dept. of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1981a).

In 1981, 52 percent of the female population 16 years of age and over was employed, rising from 43 percent in 1970. Of the same age male population, 76 percent was employed. Until 1965, middle-aged women dominated the increases in female labor force participation. Since 1965, these increases have shifted to women under the age of 35, and are concentrated in the 25-34 age group. This is remarkable because most women in this age group are married, live with their husbands, and have children under 18 at home--factors that have traditionally tended to keep women out of the labor force (U.S. Dept. of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1979).

Factors that account for this increase in women workers are varied. A high inflation rate has made a second income necessary for some families to survive, or to maintain their standard of living. More women are single family heads. Jobs have been available, particularly in those rapidly growing fields--sales, clerical, service--where there is a preponderance of women. Social changes--rising divorce rates, declining birth rates, later marriages--have had their effects. The standard of living has risen, and a large cohort of the post-World War II (baby boom) generation is reaching labor force age. Increasing numbers of educated women--particularly college graduates--now want to pursue careers. Finally, the women's movement has raised consciousness, making work for pay outside the home more socially acceptable for mothers and fostering the view that through work, women can find additional intellectual and personal fulfillment.

Looking ahead, the U.S. Department of Labor projects that the number of women in the labor force will continue to increase. By 1990, 57 percent of all women 16 years and older will be working or seeking jobs, and they will make up about 45 percent of the labor force. In addition, it is projected that 72 percent of all women of prime working age--ages 25 to 54--will be in the 1990 labor force (U.S. Dept. of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1980).

MARITAL AND FAMILY STATUS

Marital and family status, factors that affect women in the work force, have changed significantly over the past 25 years. In March 1981, more than half (54 percent) of the nation's children under the age of 18 had mothers who worked away from home. The numbers have risen steadily, from 39 percent in 1970. The most recent year-to-year increase in the number of children with working mothers occurred among those under six years of age. Looking at the statistics from another perspective, 50 percent of all mothers with children under 18 were in the labor force in 1981 (U.S. Dept. of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1981b).

Among more than half (59.8 percent) of the married couples with children, both wife and husband were wage earners. The median family income for these two-earner families was $27,745, compared to $20,743 if only the husband worked and $13,612 if only the wife worked.

In the second quarter of 1982, a record 5.9 million families, or one out of every six, were maintained by a woman who was divorced, separated, or widowed, or who had never married. The monthly incomes of families maintained by women averaged $1,012; families maintained by men averaged $1,676 per month (U.S. Dept. of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1982a).

OCCUPATIONAL SEGREGATION

Although the number of working women outside the home has increased significantly, there has been little change in the types of work they do. Most of the 46.8 million working women are occupationally segregated. More than half of them are employed in just 20 of the 144 jobs listed in the Census Occupational Classification System. What's more, the Department of Labor predicts that women will continue to choose jobs along traditional lines in the future (U.S. Dept. of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1980).

In the first quarter of 1982, 71 percent of female workers were employed in three occupational groups: clerical (38 percent), service (13 percent), and professional (20 percent). Male workers comprised only 33 percent of the same occupational groups (U.S. Dept. of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1982a).

Occupational segregation by sex is primarily the result of sex-role stereotyping of appropriate roles and jobs for men and women. While traditional roles may be satisfying, they often have the effect of limiting options and opportunities. For example, when junior high or high school girls are advised to avoid difficult mathematics and science courses and to think of themselves primarily as future wives and mothers, it does them a great disservice. According to the labor trends reviewed above, they are likely to be not only wives and mothers, but wage earners as well. Avoidance of mathematics and science courses eliminates many job options and limits employment to jobs that are generally lower-paying than those requiring mathematical, scientific, or technical skills. (See the section on the earnings gap, below, for details.)

Not only are most women segregated into three major occupational groups, but even within these major categories they are concentrated in sex-segregated subgroups. To illustrate, in the clerical category, with over 14 million workers in 1981, women were concentrated in jobs as bookkeepers, secretaries, cashiers, and typists, while men were concentrated in jobs as stock clerks and storekeepers, shipping and receiving clerks, ticket agents, dispatchers, mail carriers, and estimators and investigators. Jobs that had the highest percentages of male workers had the highest wages. Specifically, secretaries (99 percent female) averaged $230 per week, while stock clerks (66 percent male) earned $264 per week; mail carriers (88 percent male) were paid $406 per week, while bookkeepers (91 percent female) earned only $227 per week (Rytina, 1982).

Even within occupations, women are segregated. As medical doctors, they are overrepresented in pediatrics, psychiatry, anesthesiology, and pathology, but grossly underrepresented in surgery and surgical specialties--the higher-paying practices. In law, few women are in the upper echelons of law firms, on judicial benches, or in prominent positions in state and national legislatures. In education, women account for nearly 82 percent of the nation's elementary teachers, but less than 50 percent of the secondary teachers and only 20 percent of college-level teachers (Rytina, 1982).

In insurance, more women are found in the less lucrative personal lines than in commercial lines. Women work in "inside" jobs where opportunities for advancement are limited, while men are placed in "outside" sales positions, which are better paid and lead to higher-level positions. Women in business are concentrated in personnel, staff, and administrative departments, where salaries are lower and opportunities limited. In retail sales, women sell low-priced items while men are placed in the "big ticket," higher-commission departments (Women Employed Institute, 1980).

When measured as a rate of increase, women's entry into nontraditional occupations shows impressive growth, but the absolute numbers of women in such occupations are extremely small (see Chart 1).

CHART 1.
WOMEN IN TRADITIONALLY MALE JOBS, 1971-1981

OCCUPATION	FEMALES EMPLOYED (THOUSANDS)		CHANGE 1971-1981 (THOUSANDS)	% CHANGE	FEMALES EMPLOYED AS % OF TOTAL	
	1971	1981			1971	1981
Truck Drivers	11	32	21	191	.7	2.1
Engineers	12	68	56	467	1.0	4.7
Crafts, Miscellaneous	229	595	366	160	2.7	5.6
Laborers, Miscellaneous	108	335	227	210	3.7	10.4
Protective Services	50	100	50	100	4.7	7.6
Mail Carriers	17	26	9	53	6.2	11.7
Blue-Collar Supervisors	103	186	83	81	7.4	10.5
Physicians, Dentists	103	73	30	59	7.9	23.2
Technicians, Scientists	84	188	104	124	9.7	17.8
Religious Workers	33	25	8	24	11.6	9.3

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, 1980-1981.

For the most part, women have crowded into the clerical and service fields; projections indicate that over the next decade two-thirds of the total increase in employment of women will be in traditionally female occupations.

As Chart 2 indicates, employment of women in clerical fields has increased by 8 percent over the past 20 years, while the number of women employed as managers and in administration has increased by only 2.7 percent, and as craft workers by only 1.3 percent.

CHART 2.
OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF WORKING WOMEN, 1960-1981

OCCUPATION	1960	1978	1981
Clerical Workers	30.3	34.6	38.0
Service Workers, except private household	23.7	20.6	12.8
Professional and Technical Workers	12.4	15.6	20.4
Operatives	15.2	11.8	12.8
Sales Workers	7.7	6.9	4.3
Managers and Administrators	5.0	6.1	7.7
Craft Workers	1.0	1.8	2.3
Other	4.3	5.5	1.7

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1981.

EDUCATION AND PARITY

With respect to educational attainment, the relationship between working men and women did not change between 1970 and 1980, except among the youngest group. The proportion of men with a year or more of college continued to be almost six percentage points above that of women, while women remained less likely to be high school dropouts. However, among workers 25 to 34--the age group comprising the largest part of the baby boom generation--the male-female difference in the proportion with some college education narrowed substantially. Close to half of all workers in that age group had completed some college by 1980.

Educational attainment has historically been associated with higher rates of labor force participation, a pattern that persisted in March of 1981. College graduates had the highest labor force participation rates, and high school dropouts the lowest. However, a woman's payoff for educational achievement is much less than a man's. To illustrate, Chart 3 compares the earnings in occupations employing large numbers of women to those in predominantly male fields that are characterized by similar or even lesser educational credentials.

CHART 3.
EDUCATION AND EARNINGS, MALE- AND FEMALE-INTENSIVE OCCUPATIONS

MALE-INTENSIVE OCCUPATIONS	MEDIAN YEARS OF SCHOOL 1979	MEDIAN EARNINGS 1970	1981*
Truck Drivers	9.0	$ 9,640	$16,328
Auto Mechanics	10.5	9,070	14,820
Delivery Workers	11.7	9,060	14,248
Wholesale Sales Reps	13.8	13,690	16,432
Managers and Administrators (nonfinancial)	13.8	16,770	22,412
FEMALE-INTENSIVE OCCUPATIONS			
Retail Sales Clerks	12.7	$ 6,470	$ 9,256
Bookkeepers	13.7	6,540	11,804
Typists	13.7	6,070	11,076
Secretaries	13.9	6,860	11,960
Registered Nurses	14.2	8,090	12,264

Sources: U.S. Department of Labor, BLS; U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau.

*Based on weekly medians

Clearly, the economic return on greater educational achievement is typically low in occupations where women predominate. These jobs pay consistently less than male-dominated fields, regardless of educational achievement or economic demand. Secretarial work is a prime example of designating "women's work" as automatically lower paid. Even the current secretarial shortage has not produced significant wage increases. Companies classify jobs as clerical and set salary rates and ceilings for these jobs with little or no consideration of the actual job content or skills required. Corporate salary schedules commonly fail to differentiate between lower-skilled and higher-skilled clerical jobs. Further, employers make few provisions for a schedule of salary increases, after the initial years, to reward seniority and reflect the abilities developed over time in a company. The principle used to set salaries is that women hold these jobs; wage rates are not based on an objective analysis of the actual skills involved (Women Employed Institute, 1980).

THE EARNINGS GAP

The magnitude and persistence of the earnings gap between men and women are familiar and important issues among working women. First, most women work because of economic need, and women have assumed a significant role in their own and their families' economic support. Women's concentration in low-paying, dead-end jobs makes their budget problems more difficult. Second, the sustained earnings differential is in sharp contrast to the gains women have made in the numbers and kinds of jobs they hold. Women who worked at year-round, full-time jobs in 1980 earned only 60 cents for every dollar earned by men. In fact, men's median weekly earnings exceeded women's by about $143, so that women had to work nearly 8.3 days to gross the same earnings men grossed in 5 days (U.S. Dept. of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1979).

The earnings differential has not changed substantially in recent years. In 1980, the median annual $18,612 earned by men exceeded women's $11,197 by 66 percent. When the absolute difference between the earnings of men and women over a 25-year period is expressed in constant dollars to take into account the reduced purchasing power of the dollar, the disparity is even more evident. As Chart 4 indicates, the earnings gap in constant 1967 dollars increased from $1,911 in 1955 to $3,004 in 1980 (U.S. Dept. of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1979).

Some major gains for working women have been made over the past ten years. Women have access to jobs previously closed to them. Lawsuits have

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established legal precedents for equal opportunity, equal pay, and affirmative action. Nevertheless, the 1981 labor statistics do not show any significant changes in the wage differential between men and women. Even in occupations dominated by women, men earn more.

CHART 4.
COMPARISON OF MEDIAN EARNINGS OF YEAR-ROUND, FULL-TIME WORKERS, BY SEX
1955-1980
(Persons 14 years of age and over)

YEAR	MEDIAN EARNINGS WOMEN	MEN	EARNINGS GAP IN DOLLARS	WOMEN'S EARNINGS AS % OF MEN'S	% MEN'S EARNINGS EXCEEDED WOMEN'S	EARNINGS GAP IN CONSTANT 1967 DOLLARS
1980	$11,197	$18,612	$ 7,415	60.2	66.2	$ 3,004
1975	7,504	12,758	5,254	58.8	70.0	3,259
1965	3,823	6,375	2,552	60.0	66.8	2,700
1960	3,293	5,417	2,124	60.8	64.5	2,394
1955	2,719	4,252	1,533	63.9	56.4	1,911

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of the Census.

Notes: For 1967-80, data include wage and salary income and earnings from self-employment; for 1955-56, data include wage and salary income only.

POVERTY Poverty and low-income levels are determined annually by the Department of the Census, in accordance with the Consumer Price Index. Poverty is now defined as an annual income of about $8,000 for a family of four. Poverty, a long-standing social problem, hits women with particular force.

According to a 1981 report of the National Advisory Commission on Economic Opportunity, reported in the *Los Angeles Times* in January 1982 (Mall, 1982):

- Two out of every three American adults classified as living in poverty are women.
- Women and children comprise 75 percent of poor people.
- Although only 5 percent of families headed by men are at the poverty level, 25 percent of families headed by women live in poverty. Families headed by women live on 40 percent of the income of those headed by men.
- Up to one-third of the women on welfare work, but cannot earn enough to support their families.
- The average stay on welfare is 18 months. Long-term recipients are a minority.
- If the present trends continue, the poverty population will be composed solely of women and their children by the year 2000.

The report claims that welfare programs designed to get people out of poverty aren't helping women, because they do not address women's problems. For example, when a family breaks up, the usual result is that the man becomes single and the woman becomes the single family head. A study by Arlene F. Saluter of the Census Bureau, reported in the *San Diego Union* in August 1982 disclosed that 90 percent of the children in one-parent families live with their mothers and that 20 percent (12.6 million) of children under 18 in the United States live with only one parent (*San Diego Union*, 1982).

Generally, poor women have marginal jobs; that is, there are usually no fringe benefits. So when the women lose their jobs, they go on welfare. To get out of poverty and dependence on the welfare system, they need job training and support services such as day care for their families. They need training to get jobs in which they can be economically independent. But current publicly funded job training programs tend to keep women in jobs with lower pay, higher unemployment, less overtime, less union protection, and less opportunity for advancement (*Time Magazine*, 1982).

THE ISSUE FOR THE '80S

According to a recent report by the California Commission on the Status of Women (1981), the big issue for the '80s is *comparable worth*. It provides a viable approach to the problem of wage disparity. Comparable worth is equal pay for jobs of equal value, according to the level of skills, responsibility, effort, and working conditions. Comparable worth differs from the principle of equal pay for equal work stated in the 1963 Equal Pay Act, in that it allows for the comparison of different jobs.

Comparable worth delves into comparisons of pay differentials between "men's" work and "women's" work. These comparisons can be made through a system of job evaluation. Evaluation of jobs to determine wages should be conducted to assess the worth of the job, not the prevailing market wages or other means that perpetuate bias in categorizing wages.

The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission is currently investigating Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 as a legal foundation for developing guidelines for and enforcing comparability. There are, however, some legal experts who disagree that Title VII provides the necessary justification for comparability.

Most of the opposition to comparability relates to economics. The cost of raising women's wages to the median of men's wages would be in the billions. Comparability is a significant and timely vehicle for women to gain equity in the work force, but it will also be the subject of great controversy and debate. It represents a worthy challenge for the '80s.

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READING 8

PEER (PROJECT ON EQUAL EDUCATION RIGHTS) SUMMARY OF TITLE IX REGULATIONS

This introduction was prepared by Resources for Non- Sexist Environments to accompany the attached PEER summary of Title IX regulations.

TITLE IX IS: a federal civil rights law (Public Law 92-318) passed by Congress, and signed by the President on June 23, 1972. It prohibits sex discrimination in education programs and activities receiving federal funds.

THE PREAMBLE TO TITLE IX STATES: *No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any educational program or activity receiving federal financial assistance.*

History: Title IX was passed by both houses of Congress after congressional hearings held in 1970 documented the pervasiveness, perniciousness, and long-range consequences of sex discrimination in educational policy, practice, and attitude.

After Title IX was passed, the Department of Health, Education and Welfare spent three years drawing up the regulation which interprets Title IX. Citizen input on the provisions of the regulation was sought. Requests for comments on how Title IX should be implemented brought 10,000 responses--the largest number HEW had ever received on a single issue. The final regulation was published on July 21, 1975.

Scope: The scope of Title IX extends from preschool through graduate school, and protects students, professional staff, and support staff from sex discrimination. Title IX also covers any program, organization, or agency that receives federal education dollars, including professional organizations, training programs, research institutes, and so on.

Exemptions: Congress has specifically exempted all military schools as well as religious schools to the extent that the law would be inconsistent with the basic religious tenets of the school.

Textbooks and other materials are not covered under the governing regulations. These are considered the responsibility of local education agencies.

Enforcement: The Office for Civil Rights in the Department of Education, Washington, D.C., is responsible for the enforcement of Title IX.

Sanctions: Aside from the general moral and legal reasons for ending sex discrimination, it is important to remember that noncompliance could result in a cutoff of all federal funds.

TITLE IX...because it's only fair*

> *"No person . . . shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving federal financial assistance. . . ."*

Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, as stated above, has significantly improved the quality of life for countless women and men. For some individuals, Title IX aided their pursuit of better-paying, non-traditional careers. Under Title IX, some women teachers have received higher salaries; other women have won their battle against sexual harassment with Title IX's help. But most women (and their school-age daughters), whether or not they realize it, have seen the benefits of Title IX in school sports programs. Organized athletics for girls is now an integral part of school curricula.

This brochure will answer some of the most frequently asked questions about this law that has made such a difference in many lives and will tell you how you can make Title IX work for you.

WHAT IS TITLE IX? Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 is a law enacted by Congress to prohibit sex discrimination in schools and colleges receiving federal money.

WHO IS PROTECTED BY TITLE IX? Under Title IX, female *and* male students of all ages and races are entitled to equal access and treatment. This means kindergarten, high school and university students, as well as all those who attend vocational and technical schools. Title IX also protects teachers and other adults involved in the field of education.

*SOURCE: PEER, Project on Equal Education Rights, a project of the NOW Legal Defense and Education Fund, 1413 K Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20005.

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WHAT KIND OF PROTECTION DOES TITLE IX OFFER MEN?

Boys and young men are sometimes victims of society's stereotypical view of them as "macho." Before Title IX, boys were often forced to take industrial arts or vocational training to prepare for traditionally male careers.

With Title IX's coverage, young men, just as young women, must be given equal encouragement and opportunities to study whatever interests them--music, writing, nursing, computer science--and not what society deemed appropriate.

ARE THERE ANY PROGRAMS OR ACTIVITIES WHICH ARE EXEMPT FROM TITLE IX COMPLIANCE?

Yes, there are certain exceptions which are excluded from the provisions of Title IX:

- Schools whose primary purpose is training for the U.S. military services or the merchant marine
- Practices in schools controlled by religious organizations whenever compliance with Title I would be contrary to their religious beliefs
- Membership policies of the Girl and Boy Scouts, the YMCA and the YWCA, Campfire Girls and other single-sex, tax-exempt "youth service" organizations whose members are chiefly under age 19
- University-based social fraternities and sororities
- Activities relating to the American Legion's Boys' State, Boys' Nation, Girls' State and Girls' Nation conferences
- Father-son or mother-daughter activities, so long as opportunities for "reasonably comparable" activities are offered to students of both sexes
- Scholarships or other aid offered by colleges and universities to participants in single-sex pageants which reward the combination of personal appearance, poise and talent.

WHY IS TITLE IX CONSIDERED SUCH AN IMPORTANT LAW FOR WOMEN?

Women are increasingly responsible for their own economic survival. Many are the heads of single-parent families; others find that their families cannot survive in today's inflationary world on a spouse's earnings, so they choose to work. Unfortunately, when a woman does enter the work force, she earns only 59 cents for every dollar earned by a man. Title IX has enabled many girls and women to receive scholarships and training at professional and vocational schools which, in turn, better equip them to compete in a man's world. Another reason Title IX is so important to women is its broad protection in four areas of major concern to women: school admissions policies, students' rights, sports programs and jobs in education.

WHAT WERE THE CONDITIONS THAT NECESSITATED THE PASSAGE OF TITLE IX?

Just ten years ago, before Title IX became law, there were often double standards in education programs throughout this country:

- Many colleges required women to have SAT scores 30-40 points higher than those of entering men.
- A major standardized test which measured interests and aptitude of high school students used a separate scoring system for females and males. For example, although a female student may have exhibited similar skill and interest in science as her male peer, she was advised to pursue nursing rather than medicine.
- No colleges or universities offered women athletes scholarships.
- Some schools assigned male teachers to grades 4-7 and females to the lower grades.

WHAT IMPROVEMENTS HAVE BEEN MADE SINCE THE PASSAGE OF TITLE IX?

School Admissions

Under Title IX, admissions policies have broadened to include more women. Between 1972 and 1980 the number of women:

- in medical school rose from 11% to 26%
- in law school, from 10% to 34%
- in veterinary school, from 12% to 39%
- awarded doctorates, from 16% to 30%

Student Rights

Title IX guarantees equal treatment of students, both inside *and* outside the classroom:

- School counselors have begun to test and score all students in the same way and encourage both boys and girls to pursue the career which would be right for them.
- School districts cannot expel pregnant students or prevent them from participating in school activities.
- Some colleges have established policies which prohibit sexual harassment and have set grievance procedures for dealing with it.

Sports

Now schools offer girls and young women more opportunities to participate in all sports programs. Playing school sports is important because it helps girls to develop an appreciation for hard work, learn self-respect, teamwork and leadership skills. Since Title IX:

- The number of women in college sports has increased 250%.
- The number of girls playing high school sports has increased from 7% to 35% of all students in sports.
- 10,000 young women are now attending college on athletic scholarships, including many who could not afford to go without this assistance.

Jobs

Almost one-third of the nation's professional women work in the field of education. Title IX protects their rights:

- School systems are upgrading salaries and benefits for all teachers to insure that men and women teaching similar courses receive equal pay.
- More women educators are becoming school administrators and principals . . . jobs which currently are held by men.

HAS TITLE IX TOTALLY ELIMINATED SEX DISCRIMINATION?

Although Title IX has been extremely successful in ridding our school systems, classrooms and playgrounds of sexual discrimination, many inequities still exist. For example:

- In 1979, women comprised only 18% of the total number of students enrolled in technical vocational education programs.
- In the academic year 1979-80, women represented only one out of every ten engineering graduates.
- Boys still outnumber girls on the playing field 3 to 2 and girls' teams often receive inferior facilities, equipment, less coaching time and publicity.

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HOW IS TITLE IX ENFORCED?	If a student, school employee, or other interested party becomes aware that a school or college is not treating students in accordance with Title IX regulations, she or he can file a complaint with the U.S. Department of Education's Office for Civil Rights (OCR), which will investigate the complaint. If OCR identifies unequal treatment, it will order the school or college to make changes. If the institution refuses, then OCR has the power to withdraw the institution's federal money. Fortunately, OCR has never had to go so far as to cut off funds. Most schools and colleges have been willing to make the required changes. In addition to responding to complaints, OCR can independently initiate "compliance reviews" of educational programs.
ISN'T TITLE IX ONE OF THOSE LAWS WHICH REQUIRE BURDENSOME PAPERWORK AND RECORDKEEPING AT THE EXPENSE OF THE TAXPAYER?	Title IX does not require recordkeeping or reporting to the government. When the Office for Civil Rights of the U.S. Department of Education investigates a Title IX complaint involving a particular school, the investigators look at that school's *existing* records, such as the budget and the salary scale.
WILL TITLE IX CONTINUE TO EXIST?	Although it is unlikely that Title IX will be repealed, it has experienced some trouble during the last two years. For example, a Title IX amendment was introduced in the Senate in 1981 which would have restricted the comprehensive reach of Title IX--many fewer programs and activities would be covered by the law. In addition, there have been several attempts to change the regulation that implements Title IX in ways that would reduce its scope and effectiveness. So far none of these efforts have succeeded. This is due, in part, to immense concern expressed by parents, teachers and key public leaders, including members of Congress and officials in the Executive Branch.
WHAT SHOULD SOMEONE DO IF SHE OR HE FEELS DISCRIMINATED AGAINST?	As previously mentioned, one key option is to file a complaint with the Office for Civil Rights of the U.S. Department of Education. More information about filing a Title IX complaint is contained in "Anyone's Guide to Filing a Title IX Complaint" available from PEER. It might to wise to try to resolve the problem through less formal channels before filing a complaint. For example, a parent might raise the issue at a PTA meeting or have a talk with the high school athletic coach or write a letter to the principal. Sometimes these activities can yield good results. If these efforts fail, it may be necessary to bring the matter to the attention of the federal government.
WHAT CAN CONCERNED INDIVIDUALS DO TO LEARN MORE ABOUT TITLE IX AND TO INSURE ITS ENFORCEMENT IN THEIR LOCAL SCHOOL SYSTEMS?	An excellent source of information and assistance is the Project on Equal Education Rights of the NOW Legal Defense and Education Fund. Since 1974, PEER has worked to promote policies and practices that further the goal of equal education for males and females. Individuals can receive valuable information about the requirements of Title IX and important events in Congress, the courts and the Executive Branch which affect equal education by reading PEER's newsletter and a host of other publications. PEER also works with parents in local communities to give advice, information and in-depth training on how to create change in schools.

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WORKSHEET 4

SEXISM IN EDUCATION QUIZ

From *COMMENT on Research/Action About Wo/Men*, Washington, D.C., April 1977

1. What percentage of full professors at institutions of higher education are women?

   a. 10 percent b. 51.3 percent c. 26 percent

2. During 1975-76, the percentage of women college and university faculty members:

   a. fell 1 percent. b. rose 2 percent. c. stayed even.

3. Out of 2,926 accredited colleges and universities in the United States, how many are headed by a woman?

   a. 1,463 b. 812 c. 154

4. What percentage of college and university trustees are women?

   a. 51.3 percent b. 22 percent c. 13 percent

[illegible]. In a recent national survey, what percentage of 11th-grade girls selected careers from only three job categories: clerical and secretarial, education and social services, and nursing and home care?

   a. less than 10 percent b. over 50 percent c. about 25 percent

6. What proportion of working women are found in the following seven professional fields: teaching, nursing, music, social work, accounting, auditing, and library work?

   a. 4 out of 5 b. 1 out of 5 c. 2 1/2 out of 5

7. How do female and male college freshmen compare on preparation in mathematics?

   a. about equal
   b. females twice as well prepared
   c. males nine times better prepared

8. Research on male-female interaction in discussion groups shows that:

   a. males and females talk about equally.
   b. males talk two-thirds of the time.
   c. females talk two-thirds of the time.

9. A current study of 17,000 administrative positions in 1,150 institutions of higher education found that, in comparison to men holding comparable positions, women earn:

   a. about the same. b. 10 percent less. c. 20 percent less.

10. Of all full-time, year-round workers in 1974, in order to earn roughly the same wages as men earned in 5 days, women had to work:

    a. 6 days. b. 7 1/2 days. c. 9 days.

11. How does this gap in earnings between men and women workers compare with nineteen years ago?

    a. The gap is wider.
    b. The gap is narrower.
    c. The gap is about the same.

12. Women's studies courses have proliferated on campuses in the last ten years. Over 1,400 departments or schools of education prepare students for careers as teachers, school counselors, and educational administrators. Of the 5,000 women's studies courses offered nationally, how many are offered in schools or departments of education?

a. 700 b. 315 c. 184

13. Women earned only one-quarter of the doctorates awarded in schools of education in 1972-73. What percentage of them were in educational administration?

a. 93 percent b. 10 percent c. 47 percent

14. Women comprised 66 percent of elementary and secondary teachers in 1974. What percentage of them were school principals?

a. 75 percent b. 50 percent c. 15 percent

15. A direct correlation between the number of women faculty and the number of women students who subsequently became career achievers has been established. What percentage of the faculty in schools of educational administration are women?

a. 51.3 percent b. 23 percent c. 2 percent

16. How many references to the need for attention to sex-role socialization and sex discrimination in education programs are made in the 1975 Proposed Revision of Standards of Accreditation of Teacher Education?

a. 46 b. 17 c. none

17. The word "sex" was added to Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 because:

a. a Southern congressman thought it would help defeat the bill.
b. pressure from feminist groups made it necessary.
c. the country wanted to make up for past injustice.

Quiz Answers: 1. a 2. a 3. c 4. c 5. b 6. a 7. c 8. b
9. c 10. c 11. a 12. c 13. b 14. c 15. c 16. c
17. a

SESSION 3: WHY TITLE IX?

Elementary Teacher Workshop

GOALS: TO UNDERSTAND THE LIMITING EFFECTS OF SEX ROLES ON MALES AND FEMALES
TO INCREASE KNOWLEDGE OF THE LEGAL ASPECTS OF SEX DISCRIMINATION

GENERAL BUSINESS 10

Discuss questions or comments regarding the previous session and homework.

Share resources (suggested list):

- And Jill Came Tumbling After, edited by Stacey, Bereaud, and Daniels
- Cracking the Glass Slipper: PEER's Guide to Ending Sex Bias in Your Schools

Present Session 3 goals and overview.

large group

Name tags
Sign-in sheet
Chalkboard
Newsprint
Masking tape
Markers
Overhead projector

OBJECTIVE #1

Participants will identify at least one negative effect of sex-role stereotyping in each of the following categories: (a) personal, (b) social, (c) academic, and (d) career and employment.

Poster with Session 3 goals and overview

LIMITATIONS OF SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING 15

Conduct a warm-up activity, using the Activity "Value Voting: Differing Opinions."

large group

ACTIVITY GUIDE: Value Voting: Differing Opinions

20 Give the Mini-Lectures "How Sex Roles Can Limit" and "Realities of the Work World," using the Transparencies listed at the right.

mini-lecture

transparency

MINI-LECTURES:
How Sex Roles Can Limit
Realities of the Work World

TRANSPARENCY MASTERS:
Labor Force Participation
Married Women--Adult Years
Occupational Distribution of Men and Women
Occupational Distribution of Working Women
Occupational Segregation in Nontraditional Jobs
Clerical Segregation
Education and Earnings in Male- and Female-Intensive Occupations
Education and Earnings
Earnings Gap Between Women and Men

25 Form triads and have the groups fill in the Worksheet "Limiting Effects."

small group

worksheet

WORKSHEET:
Limiting Effects

15 Facilitate sharing of examples in the large group.

OBJECTIVE #2

Given twenty situations, participants will correctly identify stages of Title IX compliance using the terms sex discriminatory, sex biased, sex fair, and sex affirmative.

15 Introduce and present the filmstrip "Title IX and the Schools" or an appropriate alternative.

film

FILMSTRIP/CASSETTE:
"Title IX and the Schools"
Cassette player
Projector
Screen

10 Conduct the Mini-Lecture "Title IX," briefly reviewing major areas and responding to questions. Use the Transparencies to define and give examples of the following terms: *sex discriminatory, sex biased, sex fair,* and *sex affirmative.*

mini-lecture

MINI-LECTURE:
Title IX

transparency

TRANSPARENCY MASTERS:
Overview of General Categories: Title IX

Defining the Terms (A, B, C)

15 Divide participants into small groups and have them complete the Worksheet "Complying with Title IX."

worksheet

WORKSHEET:
Complying with Title IX

15 In the large group, conduct a follow-up discussion and sharing of responses.

HOMEWORK 5 Assign the Reading "Language Shapes Thought" for the next session. If copies have been obtained, also distribute the pamphlet *Guidelines for Equal Treatment of the Sexes in McGraw-Hill Book Company Publications.*

Preview the next session.

homework

READING:
Language Shapes Thought

Guidelines for Equal Treatment of the Sexes in McGraw-Hill Book Company Publications

PROCESS EVALUATION 5 Conduct a process evaluation of the session, using the "Process Evaluation Form."

evaluation

ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT:
Process Evaluation Form

ACTIVITY: VALUE VOTING: DIFFERING OPINIONS

This activity, adapted from materials in the *Project Awareness Training Manual*, encourages participants to think about the psychological and economic results of sexism. It gives them a chance to express their own opinions while getting a sense of the range of values held by other group members.

INSTRUCTIONS:

Ahead of the session, choose statements from the following lists that you feel would be appropriate for the participant group.

Have participants seat themselves so they can see everyone present. Explain that they will listen as you read statements on psychological and economic aspects of being male or female. Ask them to interpret statements as best they can, and then "vote"--giving their initial reaction to each statement.

Explain the procedure for "voting":

- *"Thumbs up" signals "I agree."*
- *"Thumbs down" signals "I disagree."*
- *Arms spread wide in a shrugging gesture means "I don't know," or "maybe yes, maybe no," or "sometimes yes, sometimes no."*
- *Arms folded across body means "I don't want to say."*

If there is disagreement on any of the statements, you might want to pause for a brief *discussion by saying, for example, "I see some disagreement here. Would someone who voted 'yes' give her or his reason? Someone who voted 'no'?"*

LIST A:
PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS

1. The way things are now, it's better to be a man than a woman.
2. Women shouldn't want to change things because they have the best deal now.

3. It's OK for a girl to play on a male team if she's a good athlete.

4. Men should make the important decisions because men think, but women act on their emotions.

*5. It's OK for a woman to be assertive.

*6. It's OK for a woman to be aggressive.

7. It's OK for a boy to cry.

*8. It's OK for a man to cry.

*9. It's important to me that a man act like a "real man" and that a woman act like a "real woman."

*10. A woman should not compete with a man because it damages his ego.

11. I often act in a way that a person of my sex "isn't supposed to."

12. I get mad when people tell me that how I act isn't "right" for my sex.

13. Men should be more honest about their feelings toward other people.

*14. Men should be more open with other people about their own inadequacies.

15. Women are less self-confident than men.

16. Men should pretend to know more than they really do, in order to appear "professional."

17. Men should pretend to be able to do more than they really can, in order to appear successful.

18. It is hard for women to do their best when they are competing with men.

19. Men like women who are followers, not leaders.

---

*Recommended for brief discussion if disagreement arises.

20. Women like to rely on others when there are decisions to make.

21. To work effectively, women need more encouragement and approval than men.

22. Women are more easily taken advantage of than men.

23. Women lose their sex appeal as they get older, whereas men don't.

24. Women lose their good looks as they get older, whereas men don't.

*25. Boys and girls should be brought up in the same way.

26. Sex stereotyping has damaging effects on girls' views of themselves.

27. Sex stereotyping has damaging effects on boys' views of themselves.

*28. My school channels girls and boys into sex-stereotyped personality and behavior roles.

LIST B:
ECONOMIC ASPECTS

1. I think a woman's place is in the home.

2. A woman should be willing to leave her job to follow her husband's job.

*3. A man should be willing to leave his job to follow his wife's job.

*4. It's a woman's responsibility to take time off from her job to raise children.

*5. It's a man's responsibility to take care of his wife and children.

*6. Husbands and wives should have equal responsibility for child care.

*7. Husbands and wives should have equal responsibility for household maintenance.

---

*Recommended for brief discussion if disagreement arises.

*8. Husbands and wives should have equal responsibility for wage earning.

9. I wish I didn't have to work full-time, so I could spend more time with my family and/or friends.

10. I wish I didn't have to work full-time, so I could have more time to myself.

*11. Life would be better for all of us if there were more part-time jobs available.

12. I have to support myself (and my children).

13. It's important to me that I know I'm able to support myself (and my children).

14. My father expected me to have a serious commitment to a job.

15. My mother expected me to have a serious commitment to a job.

16. My mother worked outside our home when I was younger.

17. My father took a lot of responsibility for housework and child care when I was younger.

18. Most women aren't very capable--they should leave the difficult jobs to men.

19. Women who work outside their homes really want to be men.

20. Men and women should be paid equally for the same work.

*21. Men and women should be paid equally for equivalent work.

22. A woman shouldn't take a job that pays more than her husband's job.

*23. All jobs should be open to both women and men.

24. A woman can do most everything on the job that a man can do.

---

*Recommended for brief discussion if disagreement arises.

25. A man can do most everything on the job that a woman can do.

26. I am doing a job that isn't traditional for my sex.

27. I would consider doing a job that isn't traditional for my sex.

*28. Schools should encourage both girls and boys to consider all kinds of job options.

*29. My school channels girls and boys into traditional job choices.

---

*Recommended for brief discussion if disagreement arises.

MINI-LECTURE: HOW SEX ROLES CAN LIMIT

This Mini-Lecture provides a general overview of the limitations and damaging effects of sex-role stereotyping. The four areas covered overlap, but provide a useful guideline to examine these effects.

LIMITING EFFECTS

Sex roles can place limitations on both females and males. These limiting effects vary in intensity, degree and general area for each sex. Men and boys seem to be more limited in the areas of interpersonal relationships and expression of tender feelings, while women and girls seem to be more affected in the areas of academic achievement, career aspiration, and self-esteem.

Before completing the Worksheet "Limiting Effects," let us look at some specific examples of the limitations of sex-role stereotyping for males and females in each of the following areas: academic and career/vocational; personal and social.

ACADEMIC AND CAREER/VOCATIONAL

FEMALE	MALE
Academic: In elementary school, females typically outperform males; but during high school years, female performance on ability tests begins to decline.	Academic: In elementary school, most discipline problems and most low achievers are male.
Career/Vocational: By the fourth grade, girls limit their career choices to four areas: teacher, nurse, secretary, or mother.	Career/Vocational: Males are restricted by social criticism when they consider nontraditional career areas such as nurse or dancer.

	FEMALE	MALE
PERSONAL AND SOCIAL	Personal: Women and men consider the female sex inferior and place greater value on characteristics associated with masculinity. Social: Women tend to underrate their popularity and their leadership ability.	Personal: Males suffer a high health cost, as they have a 50 percent higher rate of stress-related diseases than women do. Social: Men learn to hide emotions and suffer consequently in relationships with their families and with other men.

MINI-LECTURE: REALITIES OF THE WORK WORLD

This Mini-Lecture covers the basic realities of women in the work world, with a look at the present picture and a projection into the future.

FACTS

Since limitations on women have been dramatic in the work arena, this Mini-Lecture will concern itself with facts about women workers. Nine out of ten women work at some time in their lives; three out of four working women work full-time. Currently, women are entering the labor force in ever-increasing numbers, as shown by an increase of two million women in a one-year period (1977-78). The U.S. Department of Labor projects that by 1990, 57 percent of all women 16 and older, and 72 percent of women in the prime working ages of 25 to 54, will be working or seeking jobs. By then, women will make up 45 percent of the total civilian labor force. [Use the Transparency "Labor Force Participation" to illustrate.]

SOCIOLOGICAL FACTORS

There are many sociological factors that contribute to the significant increase of women in the work force. Some of these factors are the rising divorce rate, the declining birthrate, later marriages, increased education, inflation, the women's movement, and legislation. [Discuss the effects of these factors.]

On the average, a woman can expect to work for about 25 years if she is single. [Use the Transparency "Married Women--Adult Years" to illustrate data on married women.]

OCCUPATIONAL SEGREGATION

Although the increased number of women in the labor force is dramatic, women tend to be employed in the same traditional fields (secretarial, nursing, and teaching) as they have been for the past 25 years. [Use the Transparencies "Occupational Distribution of Men and Women," "Occupational Distribution of Working Women," "Occupational Segregation in Nontraditional Jobs," and "Clerical Segregation" to illustrate.]

Even when a female's educational level is comparable or superior to a male's, a disparity in income is apparent. In 1981, the median weekly earnings for a female college graduate working full-time were $301. For men, median earnings were $471. [Use the Transparencies "Education and Earnings in Male- and Female-Intensive Occupations" and "Education and Earnings."]

EQUAL PAY FOR EQUAL WORK?

Is there equal pay for equal work? According to the data, this equality *does not exist*. On the average, women employed full-time in 1980 earned about 60 cents for every dollar earned by men. Women worked nearly 8.3 days for the same gross wages men earned in five days. And this *earnings gap* has actually increased over the past 25 years. When calculated in constant 1967 dollars, the differential between men's and women's median annual incomes has grown from $1,911 in 1955 to $3,004 in 1980.

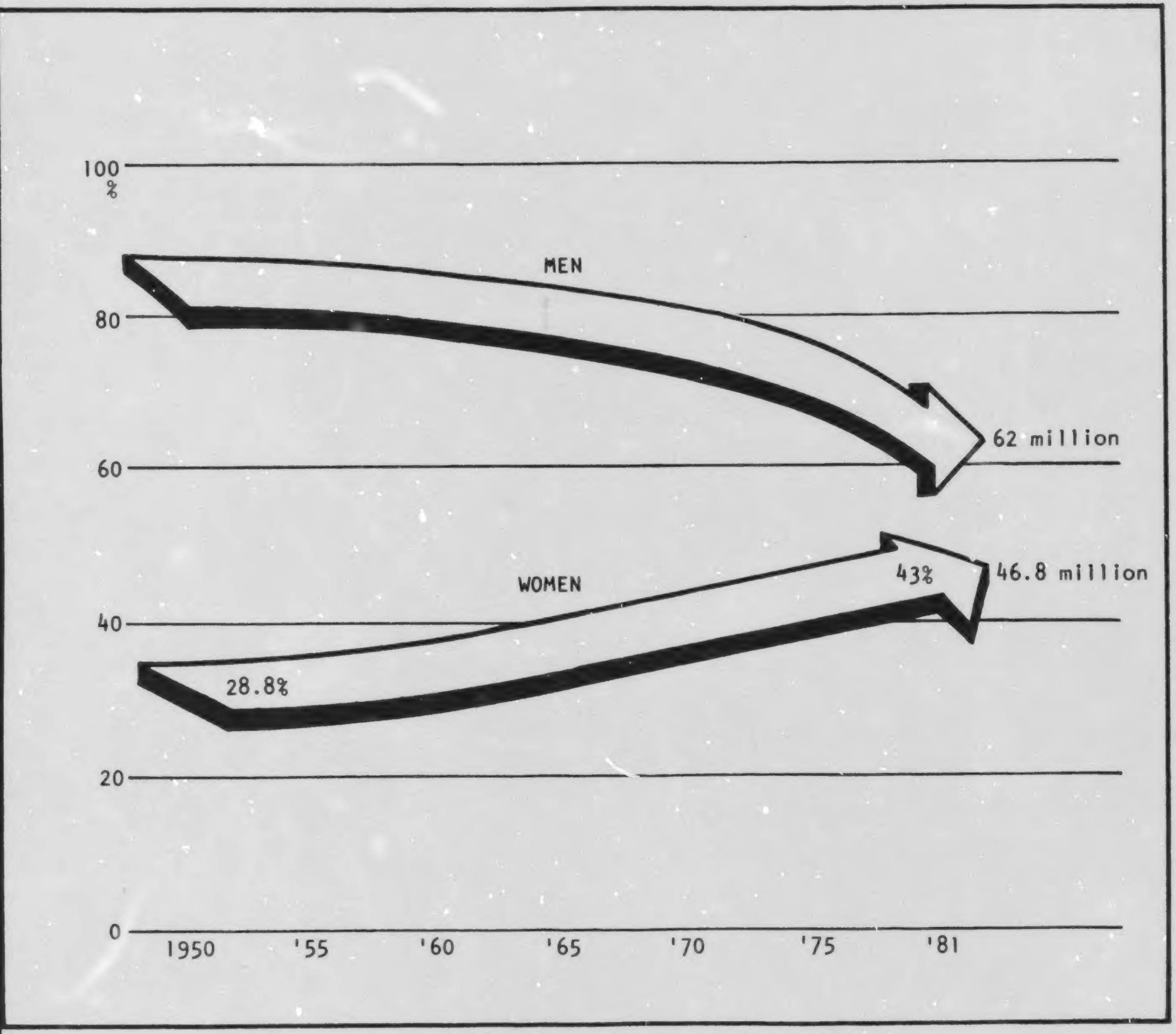
In a comparison of some of the highest-paid occupations for both sexes for 1981, where there were comparable categories with employment of 50,000 or more, the differences were all more than $100 per week, and some neared $200. For example, male computer systems analysts earned a median weekly income of $546, while females earned only $420; men employed in personnel and labor relations earned $514 per week, and women $330. Women in the highest-paid occupation earned a median income of $85 per week less than the occupation ranked twentieth in terms of income for men.

[Use the Transparency "Earnings Gap Between Women and Men" to illustrate.]

MINORITY WOMEN

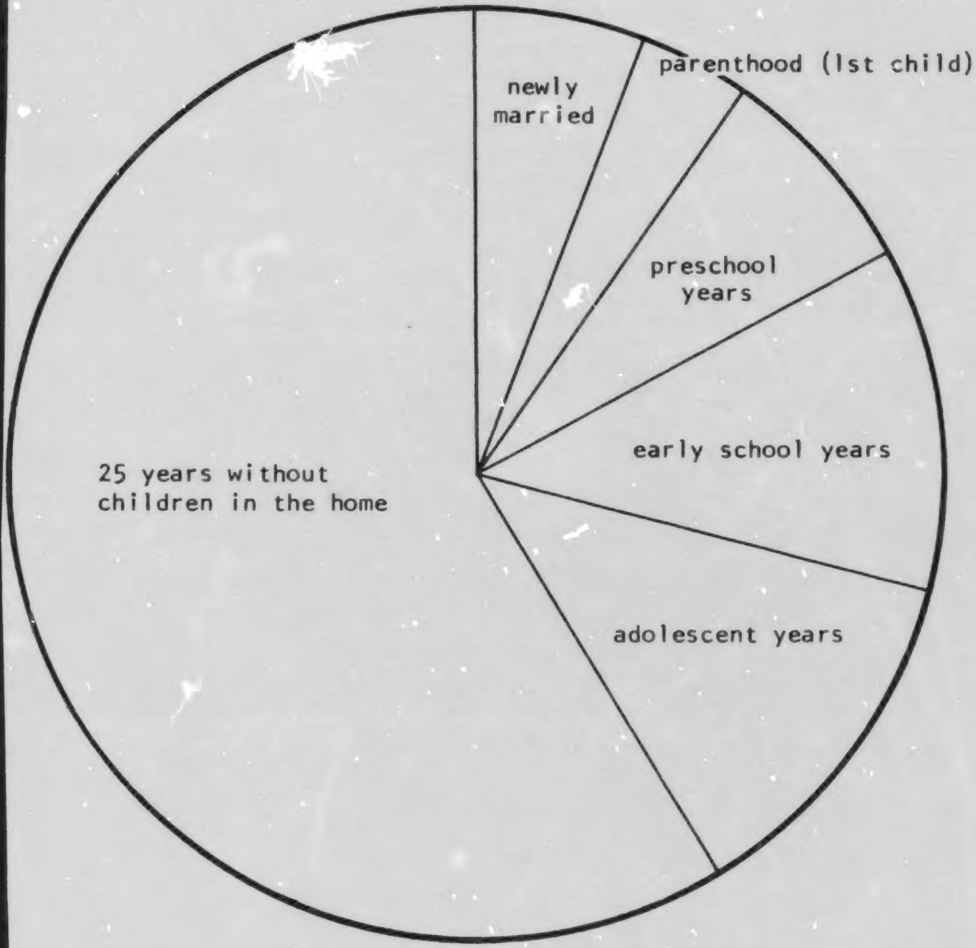
In general, minority women experience a comparatively high rate of unemployment, and are concentrated in low-paying, low-status jobs. They earn less than *all* men and less than white women. [Discuss the implications of the data presented in this Mini-Lecture for your participant audience.]

LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION

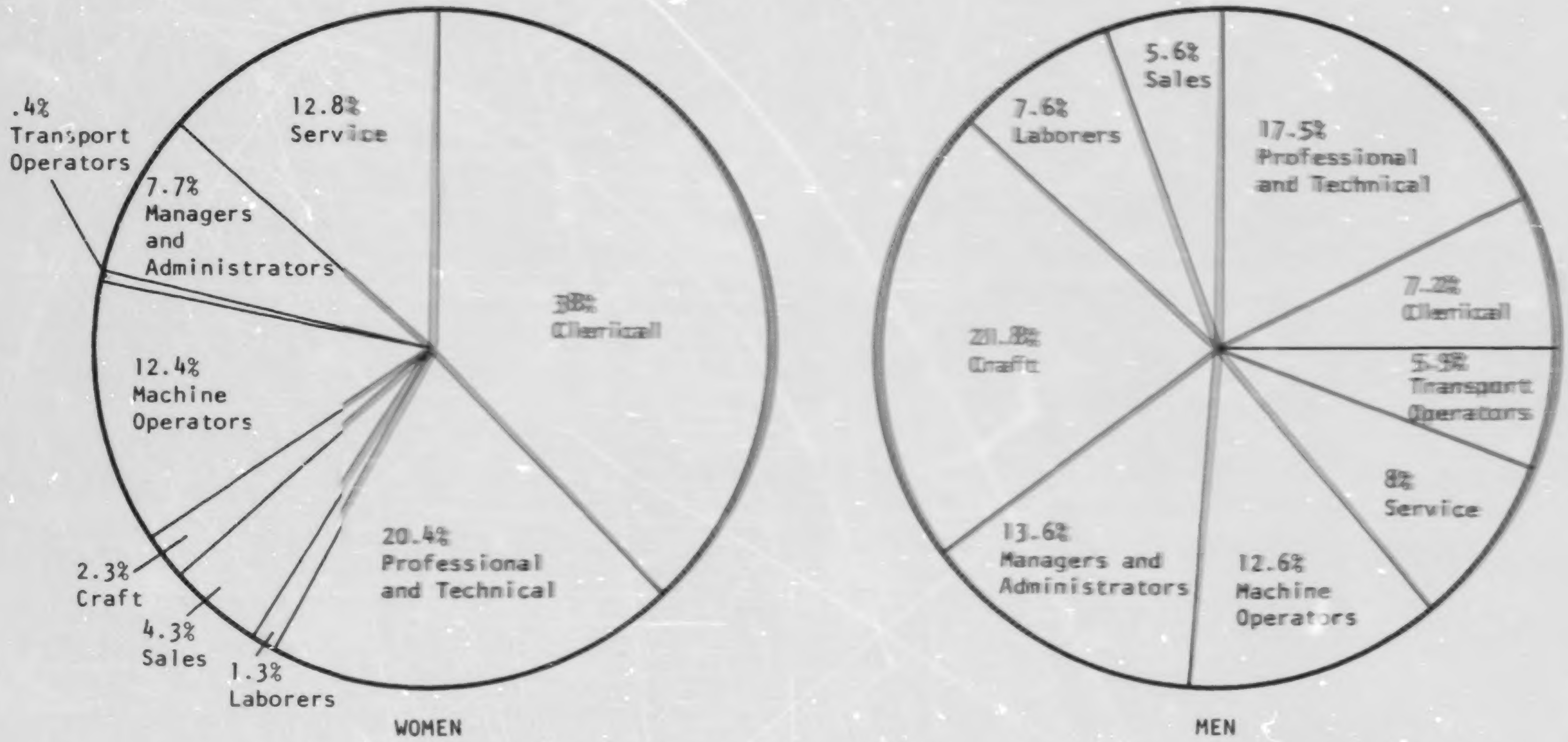


Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1981.

MARRIED WOMEN - ADULT YEARS



OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF MEN AND WOMEN



WOMEN

MEN

OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF WORKING WOMEN 1960-1981

OCCUPATION	1960	1978	1981
Clerical Workers	30.3	34.6	38.0
Service Workers, except private household	23.7	20.6	12.8
Professional and Technical Workers	12.4	15.6	20.4
Operatives	15.2	11.8	12.8
Sales Workers	7.7	6.9	4.3
Managers and Administrators	5.0	6.1	7.7
Craft Workers	1.0	1.8	2.3
Other	4.3	5.5	1.7

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1981.

OCCUPATIONAL SEGREGATION IN NONTRADITIONAL JOBS
1971-1981

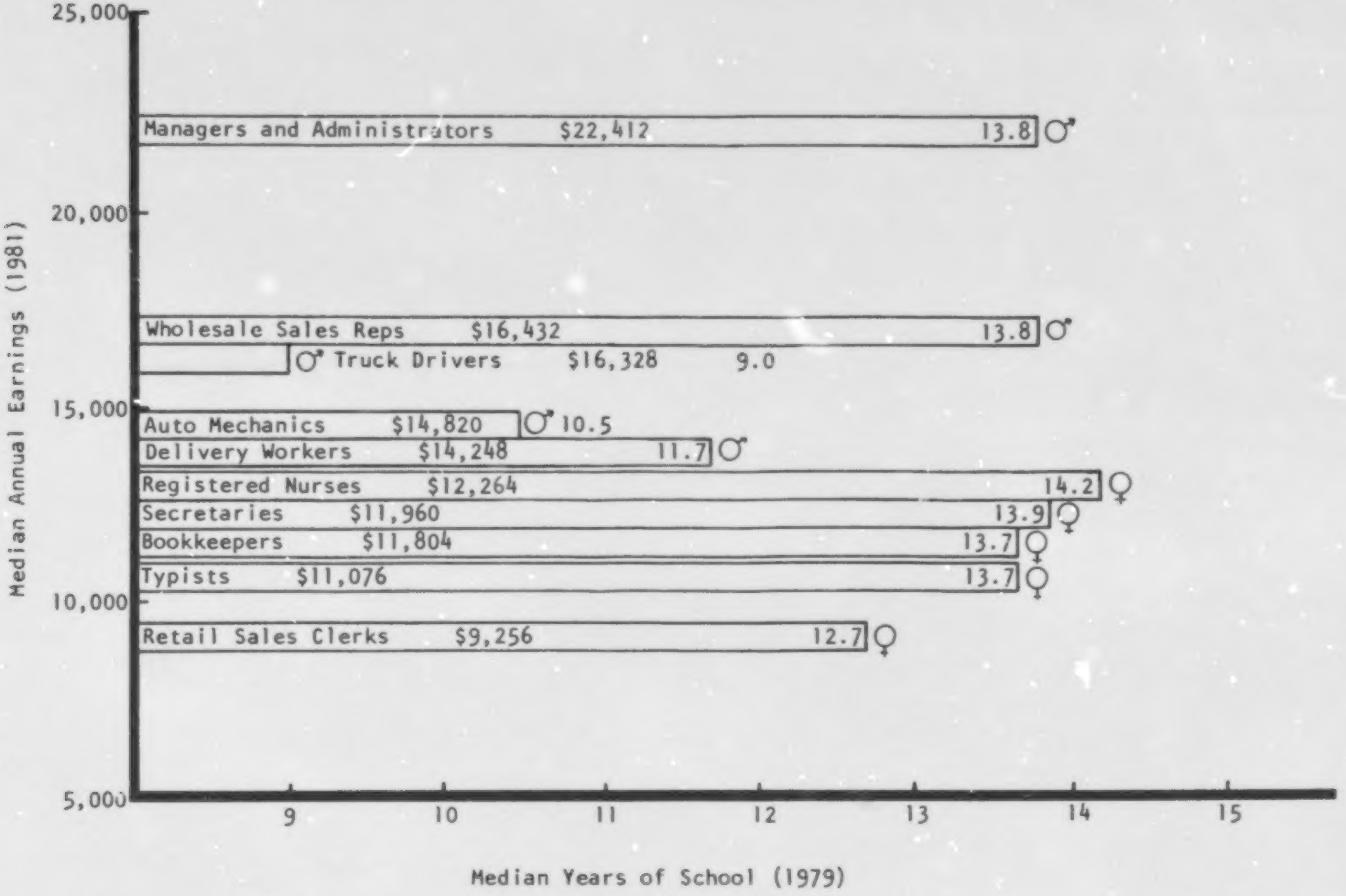
	% Female		%
	1971	1981	Increase/Decrease
Truck Drivers	.7	2.1	1.6
Engineers	1.0	4.7	3.7
Craft Workers	2.7	5.6	2.9
Laborers	3.7	10.4	6.7
Protective Service Workers	4.7	7.6	2.9
Mail Carriers	6.2	11.7	5.5
Blue-Collar Supervisors	7.4	10.5	2.9
Physicians, Dentists	7.9	23.2	15.3
Technicians, Scientists	9.7	17.8	6.1
Religious Workers	11.6	9.3	-2.3

CLERICAL SEGREGATION, 1981

Job	Female %	Median Weekly Income
Secretaries	99	229
Typists	96	211
Receptionists	96	199
Bank Tellers	94	188
Telephone Operators	92	239
Bookkeepers	91	222

Job	Male %	Median Weekly Income
Mail Carriers	88	406
Shipping/Receiving Clerks	88	263
Stock Clerks, Storekeepers	66	305
Dispatchers	63	385
Production Controllers	60	366
Ticket Agents	58	407

EDUCATION AND EARNINGS
IN MALE- AND FEMALE-INTENSIVE OCCUPATIONS



Sources: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics
U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau

TM 14

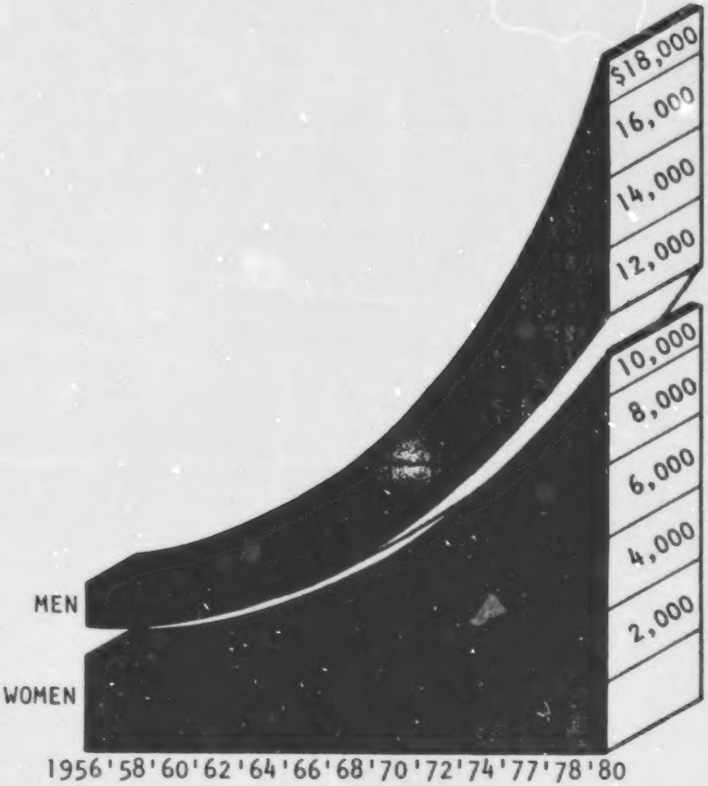
EDUCATION AND EARNINGS
1981 MEDIAN WEEKLY EARNINGS

Years of School Completed	White M	White F	Black M	Black F	Hispanic M	Hispanic F
Less than 4 Years of High School	301	182	241	172	232	167
4 Years of High School	372	224	294	209	319	211
4 Years of College	471	301	354	296	384	285
5 Years of College or More	510	359	449	384	446	

Source: Earl F. Mellor and George D. Stamas, "Usual weekly earnings: Another look at intergroup differences and basic trends." *Monthly Labor Review*, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics (April 1982): 15-24.

EARNINGS GAP BETWEEN MEN AND WOMEN

Median earnings of full-time, year-round workers,
14 years of age and over, by sex, 1956-1980



Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1980.

WORKSHEET 5

LIMITING EFFECTS

The limiting effects of sex-role stereotyping are examined in this exercise.

INSTRUCTIONS: In your own words, give at least two examples of the limitations of sex-role stereotyping in each of the areas listed.

Academic and Educational Limitations ____________________

____

____

Limited Career and Vocational Aspirations ____________________

____

____

Personal Costs and Limitations ____________________

____

____

Social and Interpersonal Limits ____________________

____

____

Share at least one personal experience that is related to a limiting effect you have listed on the previous page.

____

____

____

____

____

MINI-LECTURE: TITLE IX

This Mini-Lecture will provide some background information and give a general scope of Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972. Also, there is an explanation of key terms dealing with the stages of compliance with the law.

THE LAW

Title IX was passed by Congress, and signed by the President on June 23, 1972. It is a civil rights law prohibiting sex discrimination in education programs and activities receiving federal funds.

The preamble to Title IX states: *No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any educational program or activity receiving federal financial assistance.*

SCOPE

The scope of Title IX extends from preschool through graduate school. It protects students, professional staff, and support staff from sex discrimination.

Professional organizations, training programs, research institutes, and so on must also comply with Title IX if they receive federal dollars.

Exemptions: Military and religious schools are exempted if the laws would be inconsistent with the basic religious tenets of those schools.

SUMMARY OF THE FOUR CATEGORIES

1. The first area, General Provisions, states that all education institutions receiving federal funds must:

   - Complete a *self-evaluation* and take appropriate remedial steps to eliminate the effects of discrimination resulting from past policies or practices.

- Choose a *responsible employee* to be the *Title IX Officer*. She or he will coordinate compliance and investigate complaints.

- Include a *policy statement* in all publications. No publication should suggest by text or illustration that the recipient treats applicants or employees differently on the basis of sex.

- Give and continue to give *notification of Title IX compliance* to applicants for admission, students, parents, employees, unions, and professional organizations.

- Develop *grievance procedures* for resolution of student and employee complaints.

- File *assurance of Title IX compliance* with the federal government by October 1, 1975.

II. The second area prohibits sex discrimination in Admissions policies and criteria for selection.

III. The third area, Treatment of Students, covers discrimination in:

- housing facilities
- access to courses and activities
- counseling and guidance--tests, materials and practices
- financial aid and scholarships
- health and insurance benefits
- marital or parental status
- athletics

IV. The fourth area deals with employment and prohibits sex discrimination in recruitment, job classifications, fringe benefits, rates of pay, advertising, or pre-employment inquiries.

ENFORCEMENT

The Office for Civil Rights in the Department of Education, Washington, D.C., is responsible for enforcement.

Noncompliance could result in a cutoff of all federal funds to a school district or institution.

UNDERSTANDING THE TERMS

[Use Transparencies 16-19.] Within the context of equal educational opportunity for females and males, practices and behaviors can fall into the following categories:

- Sexist Practices and Behaviors
  - Sex Discriminatory (SD): those specifically prohibited by Title IX.
  - Sex Biased (SB): those that are still discriminatory and may be the subjects of grievances, but are not specifically covered by the Title IX regulation.
- Non-Sexist Practices and Behaviors
  - Sex Fair (SF): those affecting males and females similarly, meeting the letter of the law.
  - Sex Affirmative (SA): those that go beyond sex fair, by attempting to overcome the past effects of discrimination and bias for the affected sex.

OVERVIEW OF GENERAL CATEGORIES: TITLE IX

1. GENERAL PROVISIONS

Self-Evaluation	Notification of Title IX Compliance
Title IX Officer	Grievance Procedures
Policy Statement	Assurance of Title IX Compliance

2. ADMISSIONS POLICIES

3. TREATMENT OF STUDENTS

Housing	Financial Aid
Courses	Health and Insurance
Activities	Marital or Parental Status
Counseling	Athletics

4. EMPLOYMENT

DEFINING THE TERMS (A)

SEXIST

Sex Discriminatory

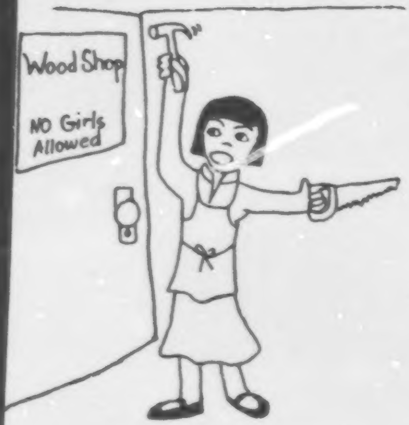
Sex Biased

NON-SEXIST

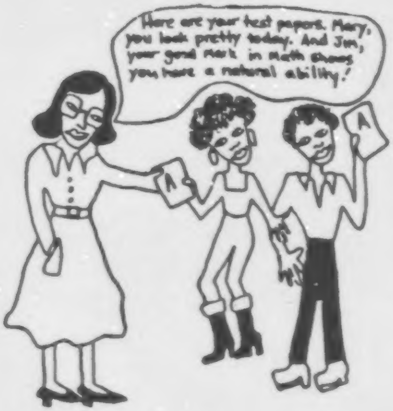
Sex Fair

Sex Affirmative

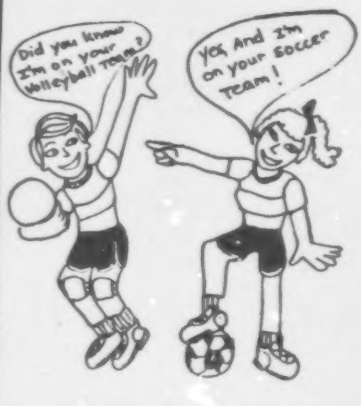
DEFINING THE TERMS (B)



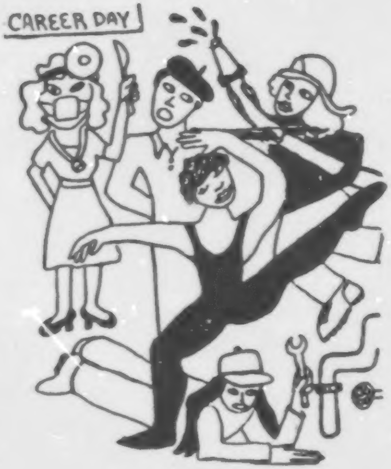
SEX DISCRIMINATORY


Here are your test papers. Mary, you look pretty today. And Jim, your good mark in math shows you have a natural ability!
A
A

SEX BIASED

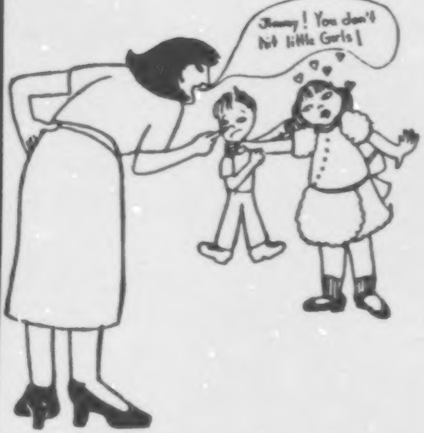

Did you know I'm on your volleyball team?
Yes, And I'm on your soccer team!

SEX FAIR

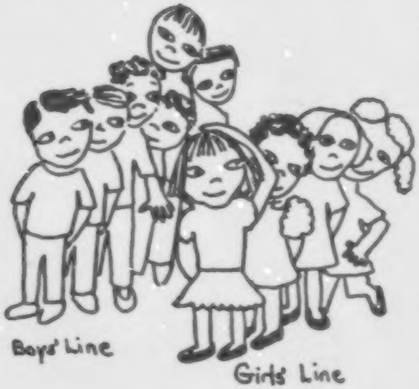


SEX AFFIRMATIVE

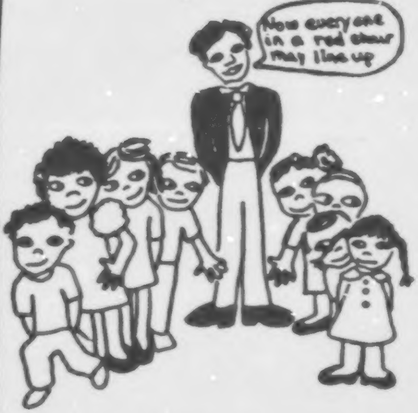
DEFINING THE TERMS (C)


Jimmy! You don't hit little Girls!

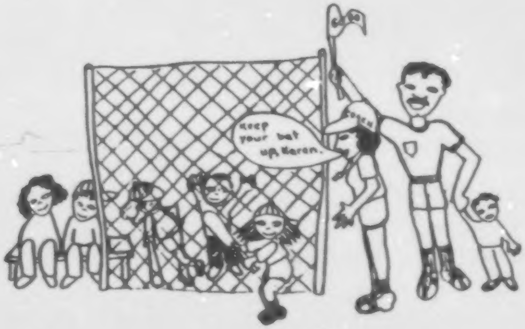
SEX DISCRIMINATORY



SEX BIASED


Now everyone in a red shirt may line up

SEX FAIR


Keep your bat up, Karen.

SEX AFFIRMATIVE

WORKSHEET 6

COMPLYING WITH TITLE IX

Adapted from materials developed by the Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education.

Within the context of equal educational opportunity for females and males, practices and behaviors can fall into the following categories:

Sexist practices and behaviors

- Sex Discriminatory (SD): those specifically prohibited by Title IX
- Sex Biased (SB): those that are still discriminatory and may be the subjects of grievances, but are not specifically covered by the Title IX regulation

Non-sexist practices and behaviors

- Sex Fair (SF): those affecting males and females similarly, meeting the letter of the law
- Sex Affirmative (SA): those that go beyond sex fair by attempting to overcome the past effects of discrimination and bias for the affected sex

INSTRUCTIONS: *Each of the following 20 examples falls under one of the categories above. Decide whether each example is Sex Discriminatory (SD), Sex Biased (SB), Sex Fair (SF), or Sex Affirmative (SA). Label the examples with the correct letters.*

____ 1. Not allowing females to use certain items of classroom machinery.

____ 2. Praising females for their appearance; praising males for their academic achievements.

____ 3. Requiring both males and females to wear uniforms that are similar in style and price.

____ 4. Encouraging students to consider both males and females for leadership positions, and helping them to evaluate the assumptions reflected in electing a male as president and a female as secretary.

____ 5. Presenting a list of possible projects in home economics that would appeal to both males and females, and allowing students to select those that interest them most.

____ 6. Suspending males for fighting; reprimanding females for the same behavior.

____ 7. Participating in developing in-service training for teachers on techniques for eliminating sex bias and discrimination in the classroom.

____ 8. Requiring females to obtain written statements from prospective employers before entering certain vocational courses; making no similar requirements for males.

____ 9. Providing all students with information and counseling regarding the changing roles of females and males in the world of work and other life areas and the importance of considering a variety of course options, both sex traditional and nontraditional.

____ 10. Punishing both males and females who violate the school rule of no smoking by assigning detention based on number of offenses.

____ 11. Maintaining eye contact with members of one sex more than the other.

____ 12. Allowing girls, but not boys, to cry in the classroom.

____ 13. Requesting information on marital or parental status on employment applications.

____ 14. Allowing classes that naturally attract a disproportionate number of either sex to be offered without investigation.

____ 15. In coed physical education classes, providing a single grading standard for all students, regardless of consequences.

____ 16. Including in all announcements, bulletins, catalogs, and applications a district policy statement prohibiting sex discrimination.

____ 17. Designing special sessions to assist students in exploring nontraditional career opportunities.

____ 18. Allowing boys and girls to line up in separate lines.

____ 19. Ensuring that there are equitable numbers of male and female applicants for administrative positions.

____ 20. Providing a classroom with materials that illustrate both males and females in active play.

WORKSHEET 6 ANSWER KEY
Complying with Title IX

1. SD
2. SB
3. SF
4. SA
5. SF
6. SD
7. SA
8. SD
9. SA
10. SF
11. SB
12. SB
13. SD
14. SB
15. SD
16. SF
17. SA
18. SB
19. SF
20. SF

READING 9

LANGUAGE SHAPES THOUGHT

This Reading was prepared by Resources for Non-Sexist Environments, a federally funded WEEA project, to accompany EXPANDING OPTIONS, sex equity workshops for school communities, K-12.

INTRODUCTION

WHY LOOK AT LANGUAGE?

Societal values, reflected in the language, shape our thoughts about how and who we can and should be. Boys who hear words like *policeman*, *manpower*, and *bachelor* learn something about what they can or should become. Girls, hearing about nurses, feminine wiles, and spinsters learn something about how they can be and what roles are open to them. The language we use can limit or expand our perceptions of ourselves and others. Linguists, such as Sapir and Whorf, explore the ways a language affects the people who speak it. There is no question that language affects thought. However, language also reflects our values and attitudes; it can change as we change. Changes in attitudes can have unexpected and unpredictable effects on all languages. For example, the Black Movement changed the use of the word *Black* in less than a year.

The English language subtly and often overtly reflects the western patriarchal culture, in which the breadwinners were always males, and women handled all the child-care and household duties. These assumptions continue to be reflected in our language, even though men no longer are concerned only with their economic function in society, but also are involved with their families. Women, in our inflationary society, are increasingly found in the work force. (Nine out of ten women will work during their lifetime and over half of these women will be required by personal circumstances to work.) Our language has begun to reflect these realities; *Ms.*, *feminism*, *homemaker*, and *salesperson* are some of the words that find their roots in the women's and men's rights movements. Children must be prepared for these realities.

The question of how language results from and determines the way we perceive one another, male or female, is not a one-sided feminist issue. To be "manly" and "tough" and to avoid being "sensitive" or "emotional" are concepts that are as limiting to a man's life as the necessity to be "feminine" is to a woman's. Boys, girls, and adults--all people will benefit from inclusive, nondemeaning, nondiscriminating language: a language that does not close doors, but expands options and personal expectations.

EXCLUSIONARY LANGUAGE

LITERAL UNDERSTANDING

Children as well as adults take language literally. A three-year-old trying to retrieve a bottle from a cupboard was advised, "Use your head." She put her head into the cabinet and proceeded to push at the bottle, indeed using her head, but not for thinking. When children hear, see, and read the words *him*, *he*, *man*, *mankind*, *brotherhood*, *chairman*, *postman*, etc., they naturally picture boys or men, not girls or women.

DRAKE UNIVERSITY STUDY

A study by two Drake University researchers demonstrated literal understanding in young adults. To study the effects of the word *man* on students, they enlisted the help of college students, from campuses other than their own, in collecting photographs, cartoons, and other popular culture illustrations appropriate for a proposed introductory text in sociology. Half of the students were given proposed chapter titles containing *man*, such as Man and Society; the other half were given alternate titles that relied on the concept *people*, such as Human Society, to express the same concept. The students with the *man* titles brought in a significantly larger number of all-male or mostly male pictures than the students with the *people* titles did. *Man* did not include *woman* in this experiment.

THE COMPUTER LOOKS AT LANGUAGE

In a computer analysis of language, the publishers of the *American Heritage School Dictionary* described the sexism in textbooks and reading materials used by children. The ratio in schoolbooks of *he* to *she*, *him* to *her*, *his* to *hers* was almost four to one. Even in home economics, the traditional preserve of the female, the pronoun *he* predominated by nearly two to one. The use of *he* was found to refer to the generic human being only 32 times out of a total of 940 citations. Pronouns in schoolbooks were male in gender because most of the subjects being written about were male. In the real world there are 95 men for every 100 females. In books ready by children there are over seven times as many boys as girls (Thorne and Henley, 1975).

What are the effects of this exclusionary language on children, both boys and girls? Through the use of these male words, women have been omitted or excluded from humanity, its activities, and its history. Examples are *Neanderthal man* and *forefathers*. When we read these words or hear such phrases as "all men are created equal" and "the man on the street," we visualize a male and forget that women also were present as contributing and active persons.

According to the *Oxford English Dictionary*, the generic use of the word *man* or *men* is obsolete. *Oxford English* states that "in modern apprehension *man* as thus used primarily denotes the male sex though by implication referring also to women." It also states that in order for women to be included, the context must explicitly state that such is the case.

LANGUAGE CAN INCLUDE

From the foregoing it seems clear that when we are talking about an individual or any group in a society, our use of "inclusive" language (language that really includes both sexes) is important. Instead of *motherhood* we would use the word *parenthood* to include the role of the father and to recognize his influence and importance. Other examples are as follows:

EXCLUSIONARY	INCLUSIVE
housewife	homemaker (men also do this work)
postman	postal carrier
early man	early human/people
policeman	police officer
chairman	the chair
fireman	fire fighter
man-hours	employee hours
mankind	human, human beings, humanity

Inclusive language is not awkward or difficult to achieve except in the area of pronoun usage. Some ways to handle this problem are shown in the following sentences.

REWRITING PRONOUNS

The average American spends 20 years of his life in the work force can be changed by

- Dropping the pronoun: *The average American spends 20 years in the work force.*
- Making the noun and its referent pronoun plural: *Most Americans spend 20 years of their lives in the work force.*
- Replacing the pronoun with inclusive words: *An average American spends 20 years of his or her life in the work force.*

SUMMARY

Exclusionary language narrows career avenues for girls and boys, limiting both personal and occupational aspirations. For a girl, exclusionary language limits her sense of identity with the historical past. For a boy, pressure to "make his mark" can be great. Inclusive language does not have such limiting side effects and may aid children in exploring their world realistically.

STEREOTYPING

Language reflects outmoded societal biases that are sex-role stereotyped. In math textbook problems, girls observe and boys act. In reading texts, women nurture and men earn. In social studies texts, either women are absent or they are luggage to be carried across the mountains by the pioneers. (The pioneers are assumed to be male.)

THE DICTIONARY STEREOTYPES

Example sentences in the dictionary reinforce stereotyped roles by portraying males as rebels, as high-achieving career persons, and as dominating bullies of women: "He dipped her pigtails into the inkwell." Females in dictionary example sentences are shown as passive--crying and complaining--or as cook and main bottle washer: "The new bride was in tears." (See Nilsen et al., 1977, for a more complete analysis.)

Currently, *American Heritage* is the least sexist dictionary available. In its example phrases *they* has been substituted for *he*, *person* for *man*, etc. Other dictionaries reflect more intensely the use of the male as the social standard; woman is the negative--the minus, the not-male. Historically, the dictionary has been used as an authoritative source for settling disputes, even in court.

FEMININE IS NEGATIVE

Studies of our language show that words associated with men become more and more positive, and that there are, in fact, fewer negative words that can be applied to men. Female-referent words, however, tend to become less positive. For example, *housewife* in Old English degenerated to the current word *hussy*. *Mistress* is an example of a word moving toward the negative. Unlike *master*, *mistress*, in some contexts, might not be considered a compliment. Other examples of this can be seen in the change in the sex of names--Carroll, Leslie, Shelley, Marion, and Shirley were all originally male names that, as parents of daughters borrowed them, became less acceptable as male names.

LANGUAGE DEMEANS

Woman's status as second-class person is reflected in demeaning language. Women are assumed to be subservient, weak, and unadventurous: "Ancient Egyptians allowed their women considerable control over property." In reality, ancient Egypt was a matriarchy, and women were in control of their own property. Triviality and/or a patronizing tone are reflected by the following common descriptions: the fair sex, the weaker sex, the little woman, old maid, poetess, the second sex, etc.

There are demeaning terms for males, but often these have to do with being like a female, e.g., *sissy*.

PARALLEL USAGE

Phrases like "man and wife" reflect societal values. *Man* names a person and *wife* names a role. The phrases "man and woman" or "husband and wife" are parallel. While some women like the title *Miss* or *Mrs.*, many women today appreciate the title *Ms.*, since it gives the same information concerning marital status as does *Mr.* Note also the nonparallel usage of *boy* and *girl* to refer to adult men and women--"girls in the office," "career girl." When was the last time you heard "career boy"?

WORDS REFLECT STEREOTYPES

Cultural stereotypes are reflected in exclusionary language (our traditional language). Women are to be nurturing and emotional (note female-marked words like *nurse*, *earth*, *virgin*) and men are to be rich, strong, and powerful (*doctor*, *lawyer*, *god*). Thus the boy who is sensitive and artistic might be made to feel out-of-step and may even be ridiculed, and the girl who is decisive and directive may not be encouraged and might be labeled "bossy" or even "domineering."

Nouns that refer to power, action, and important activities are often male-marked words (for example, *president*, *lawyer*, *sculptor*, *author*, *aviator*, *major*, *actor*, *god*, *surgeon*, *poet*, *waiter*). If one is discussing a poet or lawyer with a friend, most often the listener assumes that the person referred to is male, unless the speaker states otherwise (e.g., *woman poet* or *woman lawyer*). Conversely, *prostitute*, *nurse*, *secretary*, *spider*, *earth*, *ship*, *virgin*, *widow*, *hurricane*,* *land*, *nature*, *cars*, and the *good fairy* are marked female, unless otherwise specified (e.g., *male spider*, *male prostitute*). Note that female-marked nouns have to do with usability, service, and/or unpredictability. (The foregoing is based on a linguistic analysis of the language by Nilsen et al., 1977.)

Many words in our language reflect the formerly restricted social participation of females. Consider *bachelor's degree*, *freshman*, *brotherhood*, *fellowship*, *journeyman*, *layman*, *penmanship*, *yes man*, *manslaughter*, and *upper classman*. There are many more. These words have subtle effects on both adults and children, since they imply who really belongs, for example, at college.

FAIRY TALES

Fairy tales encapsulate societal values and stereotypes, and symbolize the "goods" and "bads" of life. They have effects on children, since they are some of the first stories children hear. Studies have found that in fairy tales the immediate result of beauty is being chosen; the girl doesn't have to *do* anything. Of course, in order to achieve the final reward, she must be *the most* beautiful. The stereotype of women as competitors for male attention is reinforced and modeled. The girls may also learn to be glamorous and martyred sufferers or victims like Cinderella. This probably also acts to promote jealousy and distrust among girls.

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*Due to a National Weather Service change in policy, hurricanes are now identified with male and female names.

Fairy tales teach girls that with beauty comes marriage, and with marriage comes getting rich. Boys learn that gaining the beautiful princess brings power and riches, which are the rewards for a stout heart and good effort as, for example, in *Sleeping Beauty*. Both boys and girls learn that marriage holds the promise for living "happily ever after."

In fairy tales, powerful women are usually wicked and evil. Cinderella's stepmother is an example. Fairy godmothers, though powerful and good, are remote; children cannot identify with them.

Note: Folk tales without these rigid stereotypes are available on tape cassettes from Feminist Press, Box 334, Old Westbury, New York 11568.

STEREOTYPES IN THE LAW

Stereotyped language, with its patriarchal assumptions, is written permanently into the laws of the land. It affects us all. Only recently have these laws begun to change.

According to Haig Bosmajian in *Sexism and Language* (Nilsen et al., 1977), "woman" is stereotyped in the courts in four ways:

1. She is viewed as *wife and mother* and has historically been protected from jury service and the vote, since she must maintain the unity of the home.

2. She is seen as *incompetent and infantile*. In some states it is still a misdemeanor to use profanity in front of women and children. As late as 1972, Chief Justice Warren Burger spoke out against persons using "foul mouthings" at meetings where women and children were present, as this would lead to male violence. The definition of obscenity depended on whether women and children were present.

3. Woman is seen as a *seductive and immoral influence*. She must not go to bars, as bad influences come with her. This issue is still timely; as recently as 1971, California courts ruled a statute against women bartenders illegal and discriminatory.

4. After marriage, she becomes a legal *non-person and non-entity*.

The courts have made the least progress in this area. A woman may be required to use her married name to register to vote (Connecticut, 1972), and to use her husband's name on a driver's license (Alabama, supported by the U.S. Supreme Court, 1972). The woman thus becomes legally invisible, subsumed by the husband's identity. This causes widows and divorced women unexpected legal and economic problems. In fine points of law, the debate still goes on through the courts as to whether a woman is legally a person.

It is not legally assured that all parts of the Constitution do apply to women. Stereotypes regarding women are fully integrated into the courts' and legislatures' judicial opinions and legislation. The 14th and 15th Amendments were required to allow Blacks their full rights. The 20th Amendment was necessary so that women had the legal right to vote. "All men are created equal . . ." actually meant all white, property-owning males, and was interpreted according to that original intent until specifically changed.

In divorce actions, men also feel the effects of the institutionalized patriarchal court language; equality for women and girls will mean more freedom for men and boys.

SUMMARY

Exclusionary, sex-stereotyped language reflects our patriarchal history and assumptions about how each of us should be. Becoming aware of sexist language is only a first step; becoming knowledgeable about the effects and limitations of such language is a second step; but putting awareness and knowledge into action in our daily thought and speech is the third and most important step.

ADDENDUM

The following are examples of alternatives to sexist language.

EXCLUSIONARY	INCLUSIVE
spokesman	spokesperson
fireman	fire fighter
coed	student
hostess	host
manned	piloted
longshoreman	longshore worker dockworker
mailman	mail carrier letter carrier
foreman	supervisor foreperson
workman	worker work group (plural)
den mother	den leader den parent
manning	staffing crewing
craftsman	crafter craftsmith craftworker
statesman	leader statesperson diplomat
chairman	chairperson chair head person who chairs

EXCLUSIONARY	INCLUSIVE
man/men	human beings people humanity humankind the human race
policeman	police officer
crewmen	crew
suffragette	suffragist
First Lady	President's spouse
man-eating	human-eating
plainclothesman	plainclothes officer undercover agent
salesman	salesperson sales agent sales force (plural)
businessman	business executive business person
outdoorsman	outdoor lover sports enthusiast
man-hours	work-hours person-hours
National Guardsman	Guard member Guard troops
freshman	freshmore (from sophomore) first-year student freshpeople
sister city	sibling city affiliate partner
congressman	representative congressperson member of congress congressmember

EXCLUSIONARY	INCLUSIVE
newsman	reporter newsperson anchorperson newswriter
man-made	artificial synthetic manufactured of human origin constructed human-made
men's rights women's rights	human rights movement
housewife househusband	homemaker
cleaning lady maid	housecleaner
wife husband	spouse mate partner intimate "other" lover
manpower	person power human power human energy work force (plural) workers (plural) work groups (plural)
stewardess steward	flight attendant
motherhood fatherhood	parenthood
bachelor's degree master's degree	undergraduate degree graduate degree

	EXCLUSIONARY	INCLUSIVE
	foremothers forefathers	ancestors forebears founders
DEMEANING OR PATRONIZING LANGUAGE	broad peach whore baby honey gal hussy	woman
	the better half the weaker sex the distaff side ladies (in certain situations) girls (as applied to adult females)	women
	pansy sissy bully	man
	spinster little old lady	older person
	women's libber	feminist
	men's lib.	men's rights movement

REFERENCES

Nilsen, Alleen Pace, et al. Sexism and Language. Urbana, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1977.

Thorne, Barrie, and Henley, Nancy, eds. Language and Sex. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1975.

SESSION 4: BIAS IN INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS AND LANGUAGE

Elementary Teacher Workshop

GOALS: TO EXPAND AWARENESS OF BIAS IN INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS
TO UNDERSTAND THE ROLE OF LANGUAGE IN THE TRANSMISSION OF SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPES

GENERAL BUSINESS

Discuss questions or comments regarding the previous session and homework.

10 Discuss participant activities to meet course requirements (if applicable).

Share resources (suggested list):

- Language and Sex, edited by Thorne and Henley
- Sexism and Language, by Nilsen et al.

Discuss with the group members whether they would like to add an eighth session, on assertiveness training (Session 8 in this *Facilitator's Guide*).

Present Session 4 goals and overview.

large group

Name tags
Sign-in sheet
Chalkboard
Newsprint
Masking tape
Markers
Overhead projector

optional

OBJECTIVE #1

Participants will recognize and identify forms of bias in a story taken from an elementary reader.

Poster with Session 4 goals and overview

BIAS IN INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

10 Give the Mini-Lecture "Dimensions of Bias," using the Transparency.

mini-lecture

transparency

MINI-LECTURE: Dimensions of Bias

TRANSPARENCY MASTER: Dimensions of Bias

20 Facilitate participants' exploration of bias in textbook materials, using the Worksheet "Critical Analysis Sheet." Distribute and demonstrate the use of the Worksheet. Then distribute the Reading "A New School for Taiharuru," and have participants individually read the story and complete the Worksheet, choosing one or two characters from the story.

worksheet

WORKSHEET: Critical Analysis Sheet

READING: A New School for Taiharuru

15 Conduct a large group discussion, sharing perceptions and analyses.

large group

OBJECTIVE #2

Participants will identify and rewrite sexist line items and paragraphs.

BIAS IN LANGUAGE

10 This activity focuses awareness on issues surrounding the importance of language, ranging from "action speaks louder than words" to "words shape thought." Distribute sets of "Language Quote Cards," cut from the Worksheet, and have participants individually prioritize the statements. Then have individuals volunteer to share their first and last choices with the group. Facilitate a group discussion of the responses.

worksheet

WORKSHEET: Language Quote Cards

5 Give the Mini-Lecture "Bias in Language," using the four Transparencies, so that participants can understand the parameters of linguistic bias in the transmission of sex roles.

mini-lecture

transparency

MINI-LECTURE:
Bias in Language

TRANSPARENCY MASTERS:
Societal Values

Literal Interpretation

Inclusive Language

Stereotyping

20 Give the slide/tape presentation "Word Power" or an appropriate alternative.

Briefly discuss participants' reactions.

film

SLIDE/TAPE PRESENTATION:
"Word Power"

Projector
Screen
Cassette player

15 In pairs, have participants rewrite the sexist language on the Worksheet "Language: Make It Equitable."

worksheet

WORKSHEET:
Language: Make It Equitable

5 In the large group, allow for a brief discussion of the exercise.

15 Distribute the Worksheet "The Role of Frontier Women." Have participants divide into groups of two or three and rewrite the paragraph.

worksheet

WORKSHEET:
The Role of Frontier Women

10 Conduct a large group discussion and sharing of responses.

5 Distribute the Readings "The Role of Frontier Women: A Revision" and "The Role of Frontier Women: Teacher's Guide." Allow time for participants to share their insights.

large group

READINGS:
The Role of Frontier Women: A Revision

The Role of Frontier Women: Teacher's Guide

HOMEWORK

5 Introduce and discuss the Worksheet "Teacher Diagnostic Inventory--Elementary." Encourage participants to complete the inventory and to be ready to share the results with the group at the next session.

Assign the Readings "Hidden Messages" and "Outdoor Play" for the next session.

Have participants review the Reading "Sex Roles and the Socialization Process," assigned in Session 1.

Preview the next session.

homework

worksheet

WORKSHEET:
Teacher Diagnostic Inventory--Elementary

READINGS:
Hidden Messages

Outdoor Play

Sex Roles and the Socialization Process
(Session 1)

PROCESS EVALUATION

5 Conduct a process evaluation of the session, using the "Process Evaluation Form."

evaluation

ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT:
Process Evaluation Form

MINI-LECTURE: DIMENSIONS OF BIAS

This Mini-Lecture will establish a context for considering bias in instructional materials. The research studies reviewed here highlight the effects that stereotyped images in texts have on student performance and attitude.

THE TOPIC OF BIAS

Bias, as considered in this session, will focus on issues of *race*, *ethnic background*, *sex*, and *age*. Many feel that bias is a negative or accusatory term. Although some biases have negative effects, they are also important tools in filtering the many stimuli that bombard us continually.

Because it's impossible for any individual to absorb and deal with *all* stimuli surrounding her or him, we learn to emphasize or pick out certain stimuli and to de-emphasize others. What we emphasize or ignore is the result of our own experience and the rewards and values of those around us. Our bias or perceptual framework helps us *organize* and *interact* with the world around us. [A personal example is appropriate here--differing reactions to a movie, etc.]

BIAS IN INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

Bias can have negative effects. As early as 1940, there was documentation of racial, religious, and sex-role bias in textbooks. Reading texts serve to convey information about *behavior*, *cultural expectations*, and *social and economic values*.

Increased concern over unequal treatment of these issues began in the 1960s and '70s, as first Black Americans and later other racial/ethnic groups and women intensified pressure for greater educational and social equity.

EFFECTS OF BIAS

The following research findings demonstrate the effects of reading content on the *attitudes*, *behavior*, and *achievement* of students:

- H. H. Lilcker and D. W. Johnson (1969) studied the attitudes of white elementary school students toward Blacks after the use of multiethnic readers. They found a change of attitude--in a positive direction after positive character presentations of specific groups in texts, and in a negative direction after negative presentations.

- Frusher and Walker's 1961 research on "Sex Roles in Early Reading Textbooks" suggests that the activity-oriented portrayal of boys in readers may contribute to boys' reading problems.

- G. Whipple's 1963 appraisal of the Detroit schools' reading program explores correlations between the use of multiethnic readers with inner-city first-grade children and high-achievement gains, as well as a preference for a multiethnic text over an all-white text.

These data illustrate a *correlation* between *negative bias* and *achievement*.

DIMENSIONS OF BIAS

Bias can operate in subtle ways. To identify bias in instructional materials, use the following dimensions as *criteria*:

[Use the Transparency to make these points.]

- *Omission* - excluding certain types of people from actions and achievements

- *Stereotyping* - depicting people only in narrow roles and activities, i.e., showing characters with limited dimensions or limited actions is often a derogatory portrayal

- *Status* - relegating racial and ethnic groups, women, or nations to secondary or inferior positions

- *Imbalance* - having scattered and unequal visibility; using isolated examples or tokenism

- *Unreality* - not depicting a full range of human interests, traits, capabilities and flaws--e.g., the superperson

- *Linguistic bias* - using language that stereotypes, demeans, patronizes, or omits

DIMENSIONS OF BIAS

OMISSION

STEREOTYPING

STATUS

IMBALANCE

UNREALITY

LINGUISTIC BIAS

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WORKSHEET 7

CRITICAL ANALYSIS SHEET

Adapted from materials developed by Sarah Zimet for Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education.

Textbook/Story______________________ Author______________

Critical Reading by______________________________

INSTRUCTIONS: Fill in the columns below for one or two characters.

Character	Sex	Age	Cultural/national identity	Traits/major characteristics	Were they stereotyped?		Work roles a. in family b. outside family	Were they stereotyped?		Attitude of others to character (positive, negative, patronizing, neutral)	Attitude of character to others	Positive or derogatory statement(s) about character		Given inferior status?	
					YES	NO		YES	NO			POS.	DEROG.	YES	NO

CONCLUSION: Sex Bias ☐ YES ☐ NO Race Bias ☐ YES ☐ NO

EXPLANATION:

READING 10

A NEW SCHOOL FOR TAIHARURU

Adapted from materials developed by Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education.

Andrew lived with his family on the tiny island of Taiharuru, one of hundreds that dot the broad Pacific ocean south of Hawaii. Left to themselves for centuries, the peaceful natives had once led an easygoing life. But times were changing.

From his lofty perch in a palm tree, Andrew could see the town across the mountain where the boys and girls in Andrew's little village went to school. The long walk to and from the school left little time to study. An American had recently come to the town, and this morning he was holding an important meeting to which all the men of the village had gone.

Andrew slid nimbly down the sloping trunk of the palm tree and went to the grass hut where he saw his mother, Esther, preparing lunch.

Early in the morning, Esther had told Andrew's father, Thomas, good-bye and had walked down the hill to the river to catch a fish for the noon meal. After cleaning the fish, she had placed it, along with slices of papaya, on a banana leaf. Wrapping this firmly about the food, Esther had laid it on a bed of coals to steam until the sun was high and Thomas had returned from the meeting.

Esther was the first to see her husband bursting along the jungle path. "Papa has big news," she told Andrew. "He is excited; he walks fast."

"I'm hungry," Thomas complained when he returned. "Let us eat while I talk." Esther quickly gathered the food for the meal.

The steaming baked fish and the papaya gave off an appetizing aroma, and all fell to eating. Between mouthfuls Thomas told his story.

"A tall American has come to our island. He will help us build a school in our village. Then our children won't have to cross the mountain every day to go to school."

"A school here?" Andrew asked. "How can this be done? We have no money, no stone, little wood, and no tools at all."

"But hear me," Thomas went on. "This American says he has no money either, but he has a little boat with a motor, and he will help us build a raft to use in gathering the stone for the building. He will take our strongest men and the raft out to the reef each day when the tide is low. There, we will dive down and loosen the great heads of coral from the bottom and haul them with ropes up to the raft. When it is fully loaded, he will bring it to the beach where others of our men will haul up the coral with ropes to the place where the school will be built. He will teach the men how to shape the heads into building stones. Only the best divers will go in the boat."

"Is there not something the women of the village can do?" Esther asked. "I too am a good swimmer."

"Yes, the American thought of everything. We will need eighty dollars to buy cement to put between the stones and to make the floor. The American says the women are to catch fish and sell them in the town market and make the money that way."

"We will!" said Esther.

For the next few weeks the village was filled with excitement. Each day the women awoke early and went with their hand nets to the fishing grounds. From the water's edge they cast the nets repeatedly into the sea. Heaping the fresh fish into baskets, they began the journey over the steep mountain trail to the town market.

Each day the strongest of the men went to the reef. They dived down and loosened the big rounded heads of coral and brought them up to be loaded on the raft. The men on shore hauled the coral to the building site. Other men squared the coral into blocks with tools provided by the

American. Day after day Andrew and other boys of the village took the cast-off coral and pounded it into small bits to be used in the cement floor.

On a sunny day after a tropical shower, the first stones went into place, for enough money had come in from the fish market to buy the needed cement. One day a group of men went back into the jungle, and by evening they had brought out enough straight long poles to form sturdy rafters for the roof. The boys climbed palms and cut down branches, which the women then assembled into huge piles for use in making waterproof thatched roofs. The boys even helped the women with the netcasting for fish.

Finally the school building was finished, and there was to be a big celebration! A group of men dug a great hole in the ground and others carried big rocks. Still others drew near with bundles of dry sticks and short logs.

When the pit fire had died down to hot coals, the village women placed meat on the fire and let it cook slowly.

Torches were lit, and soon all the villagers, bearing gifts and fruits, began assembling. It was the greatest day in the history of the village.

After the feast, the village chief rose and called for silence. He thanked the American for his help and presented him with a tortoise-shell fan. Then he called on the other villagers to file by and offer their gifts to the American. Then the tall American stood, and said, "I thank all of you for these gifts. Now that you know how to work with coral stone, I hope that you will build many other buildings and houses. Try not to forget the lessons you have learned." Everyone cheered, and the American sat down. The celebration went on.

WORKSHEET 8

LANGUAGE QUOTE CARDS

INSTRUCTIONS TO THE FACILITATOR: Reproduce sufficient copies of the Worksheet and cut out the cards along the dotted lines. Collate a set for each participant. Have participants prioritize the statements.

Actions speak louder than words.

-Anonymous

[Before words] I lived in a white mist.

-Helen Keller

Language--a form of organized stutter.

-Marshall McLuhan

Words govern us more than anatomy.

-Gore Vidal

We are all apt to believe what the world believes (says) about us.

-George Eliot
(Mary Ann Evans)

Language is the breath of civilization. Cut it short and society suffocates.

-Anthony Burgess

2

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Man [sic] does not live by words alone, despite the fact that he sometimes has to eat them.

-Adlai Stevenson

Sticks and stones may break my bones, but names will never hurt me.

-Anonymous

Language usage and vocabulary are important conveyors of the society's prevailing value system.

-New York State Department of Education Guidelines for Non-Sexist Education

We know that Americans tried to denigrate the suffragists by calling them suffragettes.

-Nancy Wells,
Teacher

MINI-LECTURE: BIAS IN LANGUAGE

This Mini-Lecture addresses the importance of language, as well as specific areas of language usage that are considered in the workshop activities.

SOCIETAL VALUES

Our language both *teaches* and *reflects* societal *values*. [Use the Transparency "Societal Values" to illustrate.] As a specific example, consider the words *bachelor* and *spinster*. Children learn that in one sex, singleness is valued, while in the other, value is lost.

The societal values of the 1700s are reflected in the language of the Constitution and the Declaration of Independence. These documents use the pseudo-generic* *man*, which meant only white, property-owning males. This interpretation is still used by the courts. The 14th and 15th Amendments, for minority males, and the 20th Amendment, for women, were necessary to give these groups the right to vote.

The language we use reflects our *culture* and thereby shapes our *thoughts*. But this shaping is not one-way. Language changes as the individuals in the culture alter and expand their values and knowledge. WE CAN HAVE AN EFFECT. The word *Black* instead of *Negro* is an example of rapid change in word usage that reflects changing attitudes--attitudes changed via vigorous civil rights activities and increased Black pride.

LITERAL UNDERSTANDING

[Use the Transparency "Literal Interpretation" to illustrate.] Children, as well as adults, have a *literal* understanding of language. When we hear the word *policeman*, we visualize a *man*. *Man-hours* means that *men* are working, not women. The Drake University study abstracted in your Reading showed that college students visualized males when the pseudo-generic *man* was used, and that when truly generic words like *people* were used, significantly more female images were included.

**Generic* refers to all members of a class or group.

INCLUSIVE LANGUAGE

[Use the Transparency "Inclusive Language" to illustrate.] Related to our literal understanding of language is the use of *inclusive language*. Expressions such as "man-hours," "men of science," and "man invents the wheel" exclude and omit the contributions and participation of females. *Sex-inclusive* or *sex-fair* language includes *all* relevant people. For example, if *humans* invented the wheel, females may then be visualized as part of this group. A book titled *Famous Scientists* instead of *Men of Science* will more likely be thought to include mention of the Nobel Prize-winning physicist Maria Goepper Mayer.

STEREOTYPED LANGUAGE

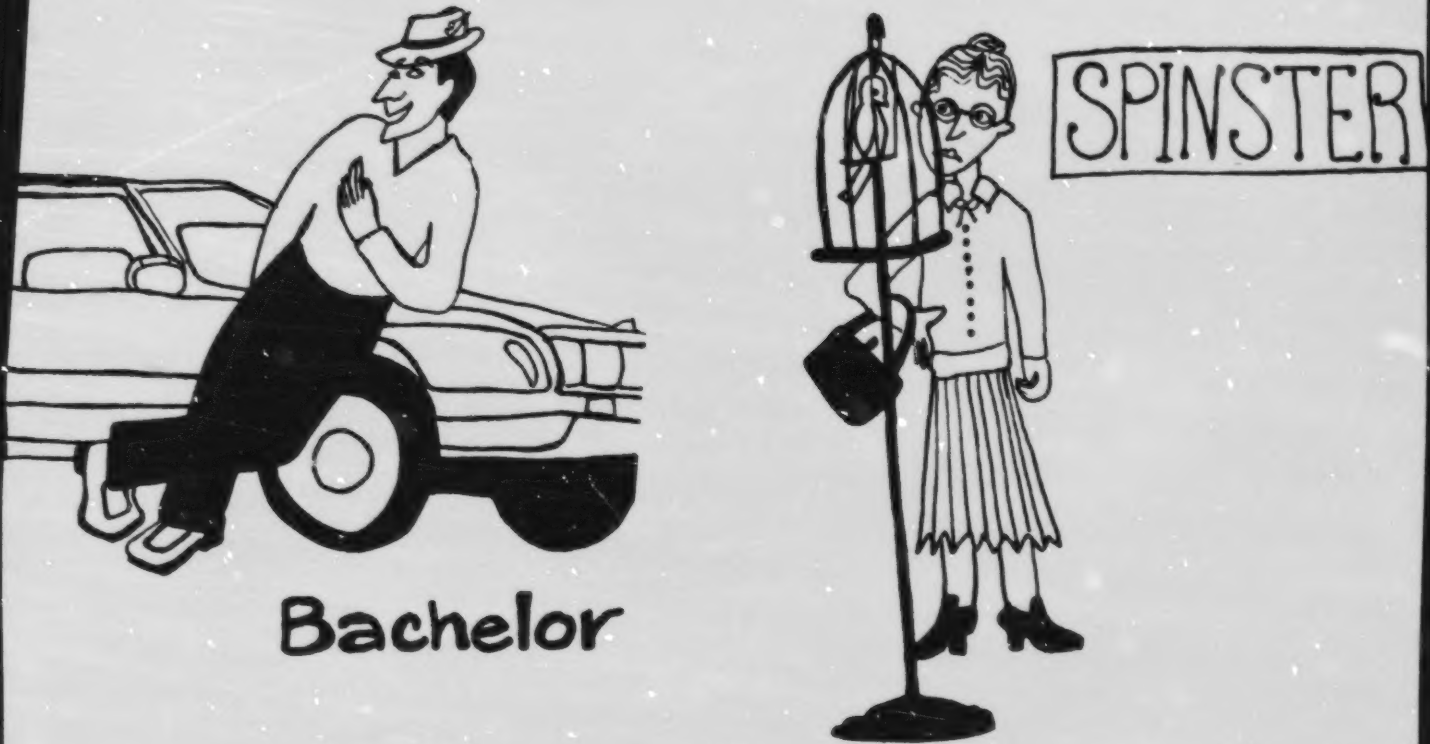
[Use the Transparency "Stereotyping" to illustrate.] *Stereotyped language* includes *limited assumptions* about how a male or female can be. "The nurse . . . she" and "act like a man" are examples. The assumptions here are that men are not nurses, or that men must not show their feelings. *Stereotyping* occurs as a *pattern of assumptions*. Children perceive these patterns and limit their behaviors and aspirations accordingly.

The stereotype of the female as less important than the male must also be considered, since both girls and boys learn to devalue females through demeaning or belittling language. Examples of this will be found in the Worksheet we will be doing. *Sissy* is an example of language that demeans males, but note that the insult has to do with being "like a woman."

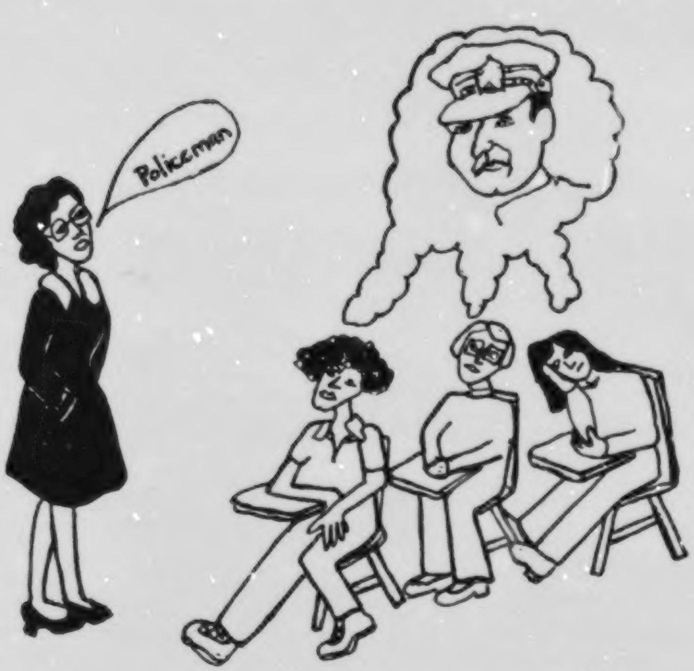
SUMMARY

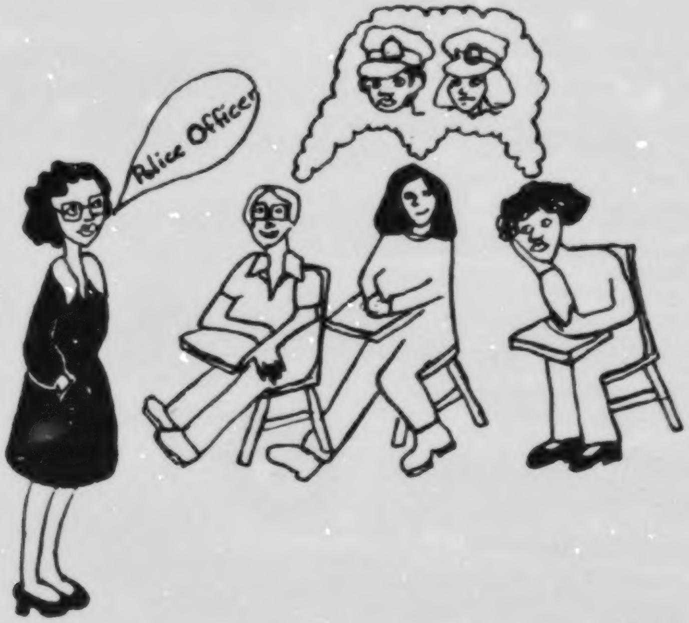
Since children learn about societal values and society's expectations for them through the language used by adults, it is important for us, as people involved in the schools, to examine our language and to see that we are *expanding options* and not inadvertently limiting them.

Societal Values

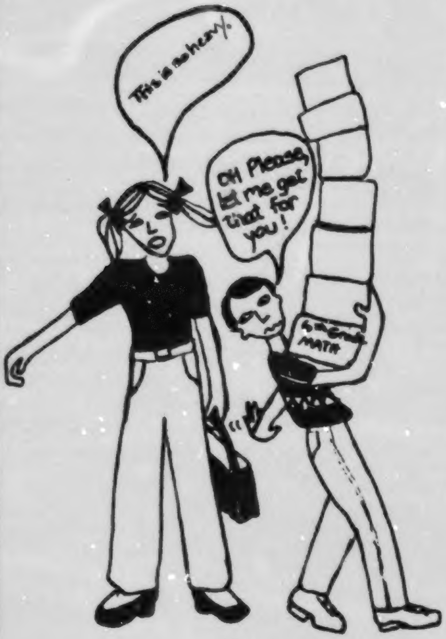


Literal Interpretation

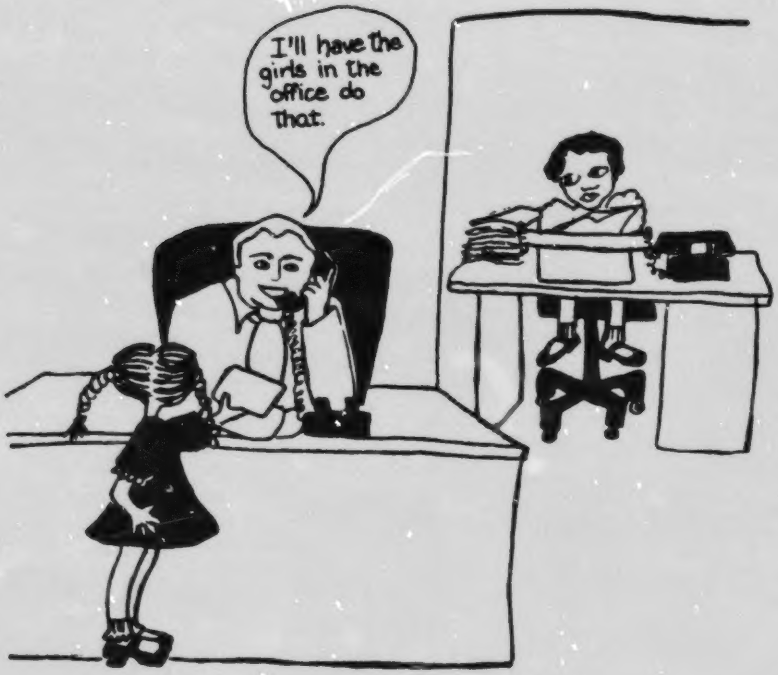




Inclusive Language


This is so heavy.
OH Please, let me get that for you!
6th Grade MATH

Stereotyping


I'll have the girls in the office do That.

WORKSHEET 9

LANGUAGE: MAKE IT EQUITABLE

Adapted from materials developed by Margaret Budd and Myrra Lee for the San Diego Unified School District.

I. INCLUSIVE LANGUAGE

A. *INSTRUCTIONS: Rewrite the following examples so that they are non-sexist and inclusive.*

1. early man *early people*
2. Neanderthal man ______
3. cavemen ______
4. congressman ______
5. fireman ______
6. When man invented the wheel ______
7. policeman ______
8. man-made ______
9. chairman ______
10. housewife ______
11. motherhood ______
12. History of the Black Man in America ______

B. *INSTRUCTIONS: Rewrite these sentences (quoted from career materials) so they include both sexes.*

1. How does the postman get his job? *How do postal carriers get their jobs?*

2. Select the owner of a business and make pictures for the bulletin board of the people he must pay and the materials he must purchase. ________

3. The secretary who does not make the most of her physical attributes is not doing herself justice. ________

4. The social worker concentrated her skills in family practice. ________

5. Have students find out where their fathers work. ________

II. STEREOTYPING AND DEMEANING LANGUAGE

INSTRUCTIONS: Rewrite the underlined words to make them equal or parallel for men and women.

1. the fair sex; the weaker sex *women; females*
2. girls in the office/men in the office ________
3. man and wife ________
4. old maid, bachelor ________
5. career man; career girl ________
6. The works of Hemingway, Steinbeck and Miss Buck were widely read. ________

7. Mr. McAllister runs the garage in partnership with his wife, a striking blonde, who mans the pump.

8. sissy, tomboy

III. STEREOTYPING IN TEXTBOOKS

INSTRUCTIONS: Rewrite the examples so that stereotypes about men and women are not reinforced.

1. the founding fathers *the founders*

2. Pioneers moved West, taking their wives and children with them.

3. In New England, the typical farm was so small that the owner and his sons could take care of it by themselves.

4. Al listened tolerantly to the ladies' chatter.

5. Math problem: Susie bought a doll for $3.68, and Billy bought a toy truck for $3.50. How much more did Susie pay?

WORKSHEET ANSWER KEY

Language: Make It Equitable

The following are suggested answers, and are not meant to be definitive.

I. A.
- 2. people, humans
- 3. cave dwellers
- 4. members of Congress
- 5. fire fighter
- 6. humans
- 7. police officer
- 8. synthetic, artificial, handmade
- 9. the chair, chairperson
- 10. homemaker
- 11. parenthood
- 12. Black History

B.
- 2. people who must be paid, etc.
- 3. Make it plural; change "attributes" to "appearance."
- 4. Delete the pronoun "her."
- 5. Change "fathers" to "parents."

II.
- 2. women
- 3. man and woman, or husband and wife
- 4. single woman
- 5. woman
- 6. Delete "Miss" for parallel usage.
- 7. Mr. and Mrs. McAllister run the garage as partners.
- 8. sensitive

III.
- 2. Pioneer families moved West.
- 3. the family could take care
- 4. Judy listened tolerantly to the men's chatter.
- 5. Change or reverse the toys--let Susie buy stamps and Billy a teddy bear.

WORKSHEET 10

THE ROLE OF FRONTIER WOMEN

Adapted from materials developed by Margaret Budd and Myrra Lee for the San Diego Unified School District.

INSTRUCTIONS: Rewrite the following passage using non-demeaning, non-discriminatory language.

Women played an important but not spectacular part on the frontier. They never equaled men in numbers and were seldom found with the trapper and trader and not often in the early mining and lumber camps. Only when the settler came to clear a bit of land and to establish a home did the woman find a permanent place at the pioneer's side. Then she proved her ability to uphold her end of the load, even where physical endurance was required. She bore the children, cared for them in sickness, and often taught them arithmetic and how to read and write. She tended her garden, cooked the family's food, and preserved what she could for the winter. From the skins of wild animals or from homespun cloth she fashioned clothing for her men and children, and when danger from wild beasts or Indians threatened, she proved herself capable in the use of a gun.

READING 11

THE ROLE OF FRONTIER WOMEN: A REVISION

Adapted from an original revision written by Margaret Budd for the San Diego Unified School District.

Women played an important part in the settlement of the frontier. Trapping, mining, and lumbering were not considered occupations for single women of the seventeenth century, and therefore few women were found in the uninhabited portions of the New World. Only when the land was cleared for farming and when more permanent settlements developed did women and men establish homes in wilderness areas. Mere survival was difficult and required great physical effort on the part of the pioneers. The woman bore the children, cared for them in sickness, and often taught them arithmetic and how to read and write. She was responsible for growing the bulk of the family's food, which she cooked or preserved for the family to live on during the winter. From the skins of wild animals, or from cloth that she had woven, she fashioned clothing for the entire family. When pioneer men journeyed away from the isolated cabins to hunt, to buy supplies, or to participate in extended war campaigns, the pioneer women had the added responsibilities of protecting themselves and the remaining members of the household against wild beasts and unfriendly Indians.

READING 12

THE ROLE OF FRONTIER WOMEN: TEACHER'S GUIDE

Adapted from materials prepared by Margaret Budd
for the San Diego Unified School District.

INSTRUCTIONS: Use this reading to provide an analysis of the passage on Worksheet 10.

Women played an important but not spectacular part on the frontier.

This is a case of "damning with faint praise." No one required or requested of men that they be "spectacular" as trappers or traders. This is one of the many sentences in this short paragraph where women have to "prove" themselves.

They never equaled men in numbers . . .

Equality in numbers is an irrelevant phrase in the description of the role of women on the frontier.

. . . were seldom found with the trapper and trader and not often in the early mining and lumber camps.

An inane statement, given the roles that seventeenth- and eighteenth-century women were assigned in the society of that time.

Only when the settler came to clear a bit of land and to establish a home did the woman find a permanent place at the pioneer's side.

The settler and the pioneer in the sense of this sentence are male, when in actuality the women who made homes on cleared parcels of land were also "settlers" and "pioneers."

Then she proved her ability to uphold her end of the load, even where physical endurance was required.

Here she is proving herself again. The physical hardships were equally difficult for female and male pioneers.

She tended her garden . . .

It was not a hobby she carried on in her spare time. It was vital work on which the family depended for its sustenance.

. . . or from homespun cloth . . .

That cloth did not come out of the air. The carding and spinning of wool and the weaving of cloth were laborious, long, hard jobs left to women.

. . . when danger . . . threatened, she proved herself capable . . .

Here she is proving herself again. From the diaries available from the period, it is surprising how much of the time women in these wilderness areas were left alone with all of the work, supervision, and protection duties to perform by themselves.

WORKSHEET 11

TEACHER DIAGNOSTIC INVENTORY—ELEMENTARY

Adapted from materials developed by Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education.

INSTRUCTIONS: The following questions are designed to help you identify sex bias or discrimination in your classroom. The inventory is divided into eight groups of questions dealing with various types of teacher-student interactions and classroom management procedures.

If you do not know the answer to a question, indicate in the right-hand column how you can obtain the information needed for answering the question. Consider each question in light of the specific behavior and management of your classroom, not the behaviors and practices in other parts of the school.

I. TEACHER'S VERBAL INTERACTION WITH STUDENTS

Do you interact similarly with males and females with regard to:	Yes	No	Don't know but could find out by:
1. the frequency with which you call on them?	___	___	___________
2. the frequency with which you praise them?	___	___	___________
3. the kinds of behaviors for which you praise them?	___	___	___________
4. the frequency with which you reprimand or punish them?	___	___	___________
5. the kinds of behaviors for which you reprimand or punish them?	___	___	___________

	Yes	No	Don't know but could find out by:
6. the frequency with which you give them individual help?	__	__	______
7. the frequency with which you joke with them?	__	__	______
8. the kinds of things you joke about?	__	__	______
9. the kind of language you use around them?	__	__	______
10. the terms (boys, young ladies) you use to address them?	__	__	______
11. the kinds of examples you use in classroom discussions and teaching situations?	__	__	______

II. TEACHER'S NON-VERBAL INTERACTION WITH STUDENTS

Do you interact similarly with males and females with regard to:

12. maintaining eye contact with them?	__	__	______
13. maintaining close proximity to them?	__	__	______
14. touching them (to indicate either support or disapproval)?	__	__	______

III. TREATMENT OF STUDENTS

Do you treat females and males similarly with regard to:

15. standards for dress and appearance?	__	__	______

	Yes	No	Don't know but could find out by:
16. norms governing language usage (slang, obscenities)?	___	___	___________
17. excusing them to use the restrooms and clinic?	___	___	___________

IV. BEHAVIORAL EXPECTATIONS SET FOR STUDENTS

Do you have similar expectations for females and males with regard to:

	Yes	No	Don't know but could find out by:
18. extending traditional courtesies to one another?	___	___	___________
19. standards of self-care (personal appearance, nutrition, rest, physical activity)?	___	___	___________
20. the level and type of emotion considered appropriate for the classroom?	___	___	___________
21. planning a greater percentage of noisy or quiet activities?	___	___	___________
22. planning a greater percentage of messy or neat activities?	___	___	___________

V. SEX COMPOSITION OF CLASSROOM ACTIVITY GROUPINGS

Do you make sure that the following are undesignated as to sex?

	Yes	No	Don't know but could find out by:
23. seat assignments or work-group assignments	___	___	___________

	Yes	No	Don't know but could find out by:
24. lines of students entering or leaving the class	__	__	________
25. play groups for recreational and social activities (recess activities, for example)	__	__	________
26. displays of students' work and projects	__	__	________

VI. STUDENT WORK ASSIGNMENTS/ROLES

Do you provide a full range of opportunities, without reference or restriction as to sex, in:

27. work assignments (audiovisual aides, messengers, teacher's helpers, etc.)?	__	__	________
28. academic assignments?	__	__	________
29. participation in any club or extracurricular activity that is associated with your class or program?	__	__	________
30. career options?	__	__	________
31. interests (sports, crafts, music, etc.)?	__	__	________
32. classroom library books?	__	__	________

VII. ROLE MODELS PRESENTED TO STUDENTS

Do you provide a full range of female and male role models in both sex-traditional and non-traditional roles for students through:

	Yes	No	Don't know but could find out by:
33. materials on the bulletin board or in display cases?	__	__	________
34. resource persons with whom students interact in the classroom?	__	__	________
35. the same number of pictures of girls as pictures of boys displayed around the room?	__	__	________
36. pictures of girls involved in active play?	__	__	________
37. pictures of boys in contemplative or caring roles?	__	__	________
38. pictures of girls displaying "positive" behaviors, such as making decisions, leading, helping, solving problems, and "negative" behaviors, such as crying (or being sad), hitting, getting into trouble?	__	__	________
39. pictures of boys displaying "positive" behaviors, such as helping, leading, making decisions, solving problems, and "negative" behaviors, such as crying (or being sad), hitting, getting into trouble?	__	__	________

VIII. PERFORMANCE OF STUDENTS

Are the standards set for male and female students similar in regard to:

	Yes	No	Don't know but could find out by:
40. expected levels of academic performance?	__	__	____________
41. criteria used for evaluation?	__	__	____________

READING 13

HIDDEN MESSAGES

From Non-Sexist Education for Young Children: A Practical Guide (New York: Citation Press, 1975) by Barbara Sprung. Used by permission.

ATTENTION AND REINFORCEMENT

A group of feminist teachers in California participated in a study conducted by Carole Joffee to examine the hidden messages teachers give to children. A trained observer spent time in each room and watched the teachers at work. They made some startling discoveries. They noticed that, despite their feminist philosophies, the teachers tended to pay more attention to girls when they came to school wearing dresses! They profusely remarked about how pretty they looked, reinforcing once again the societal message that it is how a girl (and later a woman) *looks* that is of primary importance.

As teachers and parents become more aware of the ways they transmit sexist messages, they begin to notice many things about their language, their classrooms, and their materials, such as toys, books, and records. Suddenly a line or phrase in a book they have been reading for years will stand out as sexist. *Dear Garbageman* by Gene Zion (Harper & Row, 1957) provides an example. A teacher had been reading this book to children for years when one day she noted this sentence, "After everyone had helped themselves, Fathers went to work and Mothers went back to the dishes." The teacher described her reactions to this seemingly innocuous sentence as follows:

> I guess I had read that book to children countless times over the years without realizing what a message that one line was giving on several levels. First of all, many of my children had working mothers, and here was one more line in a book that left their mothers out. If you add up all the times working mothers are left out of books and other materials for young children, it is no wonder that children often think that something is wrong with

> their family when mother works. Also, it struck me that to describe the mother who stays home by saying, "Mothers went back to the dishes" is a very demeaning description of homemaking. Picking the most menial of chores to represent what mothers do can't help but add to the low opinion children and adults in our society have of the job of homemaking.

ONE-LINERS MAKE A CONGLOMERATION

Maybe it seems picayune to dwell on one line in one book, but sexist attitudes are made up of a conglomeration of just such sentences. They may be in a book, on a record, in a TV commercial, or in a situation comedy. They are in the pictures of men and women that decorate classroom walls. They are in the illustrations of lotto games, puzzles, flannel board figures, and charts.

MATERIALS HELP PERPETUATE STEREOTYPES

Take a look at the materials in your classroom. Are all the community worker block accessories male except for the nurse? Is it possible to use the female block accessory from the family group as anything but a homemaker? Do any of your materials depict males in a nurturing role or females in work roles other than homemaker? Are there any books about children living in one-parent homes or in families other than nuclear families?

Teachers help perpetuate stereotyped views when they fill their dress-up areas with absurdly feminine hats, shoes and pocketbooks. These frilly props equate femininity with uncomfortable, dysfunctional clothing that perpetuates pseudo-beauty as *the* female goal. The dress-up apparel in most classrooms is reminiscent of the kinds of ridiculous outfits the goose and hen (usually foolish creatures such as Petunia) wear in children's books.

SELF-AWARENESS LEADS TO CHANGE

Even more important than the multitude of external messages mentioned above are the attitudinal ones teachers and parents pass along unconsciously. A teacher described how she became aware of and changed the way she discussed clothes with children:

> I used to remark about the children's clothing frequently. I did this to help them to become observant of themselves and each other, to develop color sense, and to generally enhance their self-images. I used to be careful to say that girls were

> pretty and boys were handsome. When I became aware of sexism, I began to examine what I was saying to the children. Instead of pretty and handsome I used words that connoted comfort and function. "Short sleeves are cool and comfortable for today, David." "Those overalls are great for climbing, Nell," or "I like the color combination you chose today, Peter."
>
> Just by changing the ways I looked at the children's clothes, I was influencing their attitudes toward appearance without diminishing their pleasure in color or denying them a special bit of attention. As a matter of fact, it made giving each child a real bit of attention easier since my comments became subtler and less hackneyed than the cliches pretty and handsome.

This teacher made a simple change in [how she dealt with] just one aspect of appearance--clothing--but just as sexism comes across to children through a variety of messages, non-sexist attitudes can be passed along in similar fashion.

Changing sexist lines and phrases in books as we read them (no one is suggesting that teachers throw out books that have sexism in them), hanging pictures in classrooms that do not perpetuate sexist stereotypes, modifying the props given children for dramatic play, and becoming aware of their own language patterns and changing them whenever possible are but a few simple things teachers can do to begin to alleviate sexism in their classrooms. And these small things do make a significant difference! A teacher recently described the following incident:

> I really notice a freer attitude in my room this year, probably because I'm more aware myself now. Recently I put a picture of Roosevelt Grier doing needlepoint in my housekeeping corner. You know the one--it's an ad for Interwoven Socks. Well, a few days after I put it up one of my little fourteen-year-old boys brought *his* needlepoint to school! You know that none of this would have been possible a few years ago.

HOUSEKEEPING AREA DESERVES SPECIAL ATTENTION

Although some early childhood educators minimize it and Montessori schools eliminate it altogether, the housekeeping area, sometimes known as the dress-up area, playhouse, doll house or Wendy house, is a staple of most early childhood classrooms. In this segment of the room most of the dramatic play about family life takes place. It thus provides teachers with many opportunities to observe the sexist attitudes of children as they reflect their own family lives.

Devising New Experiences

The important first step in creating a non-sexist program is always to find out what the children's perceptions and understanding of a given situation are and then to devise experiences that will offer more options and a more open point of view. Here are some ways teachers can open up the housekeeping area and begin to free it of its ingrained role division.

Clothing and Props

What kinds of male and female clothing does the area have? Does the female clothing consist of frilly hats, pocketbooks, lots of beads and earrings, spike-heeled shoes, and long, fancy dresses? Does the male clothing consist of fire hats, construction helmets, man-sized jackets and shoes? If so, these props are helping to perpetuate stereotyped views of men and women. By simply changing the selection to more comfortable contemporary clothing, changes can begin to be effected.

For example, one teacher noted that by providing more small suitcases and briefcases and fewer pocketbooks more boys and girls began playing dramatic roles about going to work. Most men's clothing is so large and unmanageable for little boys that they tend to dress up less than girls. Instead of using adult male clothing, try larger boys' sizes in jackets, shirts, and shoes. These are much more comfortable and encourage use. Tailored shirts make comfortable, functional dress-up clothes for both girls and boys; for instance, a work shirt is a good construction shirt for boys and girls. Half slips make fine skirts, which fit far better than women's dresses, and simple short nightgowns with shoulder straps make "fancy" dresses that are easy for children to handle. It is also a good idea to have some lengths of materials and cloth that the children can fashion into any costumes their imaginations dictate.

Pictures, Books, and Staff

If teachers believe that homemaking and parenting are shared responsibilities of men and women, they should have pictures in the housekeeping corner that show both sexes caring for children and performing household chores. Such pictures will help boys feel freer to try homemaking and nurturing roles and will also serve as catalysts for discussions about the children's own families and how work is divided in their homes.

Dolls Educators and parents are aware of the important role of dolls in the dramatic play of children. A doll is one of the first abstract symbols used by children to replace the self as an object of play. We want and expect girls to explore the nurturing role and mothering through the use of dolls, but this medium is almost totally denied to boys, although logically they have just as much need and right to explore the nurturing role and fathering. It is ironic and sad that we condition our little boys away from doll play and then are angry and resentful when as adults they seem unable to show affection, tenderness, and nurturant qualities as husbands and fathers.

There are several things [we can do as] teachers and parents . . . to make doll play more acceptable and attractive to boys. The first is to examine our own attitudes. Are we uneasy that encouraging doll play for boys will disrupt their formation of proper sexual identity? Are we afraid of parental or community objections? Are we ready to accept doll play as an important developmental experience for boys as well as girls?

NURTURANT FATHER The importance of a nurturant father in the development of proper sex identification with same-sex parents is [supported by a study that] found that the *more* nurturant the father is and the less rigidly defined the roles of the parents, the more likely [it is that] a positive identification with the parent of the same sex will occur. Behavior that conforms with male stereotypes such as authoritarian, stern, or distant is much more likely to cause fear in children and result in a negative identification with the parent of the same sex.

If teachers are to encourage doll play among boys, they should have more boy dolls in their classrooms. It is unfortunate that most dolls are anatomically incomplete, that is, they have no sex organs. However, we can at least give boys and girls dolls that are as physically like themselves as possible. When we put a black male doll dressed like a typical five-year-old in our demonstration centers, there were dramatic results.

In one center, a little boy who had seen the black boy doll, Caleb, the afternoon before came in the next morning and asked, "Where's *my* boy?" In another center a teacher related this story to us:

The day after you brought the Sasha doll to us, I introduced him to the children at our circle time. I received "oohs and ahhs" and much excitement. The children identified with him, giving him names such as Samson, David, Bruce Lee, and other names of strong, powerful men. They said he was five years old and loved his friends. The biggest and most pleasant surprise came when K. demanded David (the name we all agreed on) from me and hugged him closely with all his strength. He refused to share the doll and kept holding him close to his body with enormous strength. Eventually I talked him into sharing the "feel" of David with the rest of the group who had grown quite impatient and angry. K. wanted to monitor the passing around of David, so I agreed. He did not allow any child to hold David for more than a few seconds.

I was flabbergasted by this behavior. Never had I seen such caring and tenderness expressed by K., who had grown up with the conception that life is tough and one had to be tough to survive. He could not play with dolls and rejected such tender, "sissy" enjoyments. And now, here was K., holding onto a doll.

All that day K. kept David with him. He ate, slept, and played with the doll. The following day he washed David's clothes and when they were dry, he ironed them.

For an entire week K. played with David and included him in every phase of classroom life. Later on in the week, the doll corner became of interest to K., and not only David but most of the other dolls became a part of his experience. David not only brought a new happiness to K. but afforded him an outlet through which he was able to express kindness, tenderness, and love. He no longer stood in the background, watching others express fondness and warmth.

READING 14

OUTDOOR PLAY

From Non-Sexist Education for Young Children: A Practical Guide (New York: Citation Press, 1975) by Barbara Sprung. Used by permission.

THE JOY AND FREEDOM OF OUTDOOR PLAY

LARGE MOTOR DEVELOPMENT

Outdoor play offers enormous potential for children to move fully through space, an impossibility in the classroom, regardless of its size. It is mainly outdoors that large motor development takes place, through such activities as walking, running, climbing, wheeling large objects, and swinging. Muscular development also occurs by carrying hollow blocks, large boards, saw horses, and similar materials that are simply too large to fit indoors in most schools. Ball games, running games, and other activities that increase coordination are also best suited to outdoor play.

DRAMATIC PLAY TAKES DIFFERENT DIMENSIONS

This is not to say that all outdoor play must be vigorous and involve running and shouting. Dramatic play occurs outdoors as often as indoors. However, although house play certainly occurs outdoors as well as indoors, outdoor dramatic play is more likely to involve transportation (driving a bus or train, riding on a boat), hiding, chasing, and escaping (robbers, Batman), building large structures (spaceships and stations, airplanes), and generally requires louder voices and large, freer movements. Even sand and water play take on different dimensions under the sky. Outdoors, children needn't be much concerned with the consequences of spilling and splashing.

Finally, there is the sense of joy and freedom that the larger outdoor space provides; children express this, not often in words, but in running, shouting, and jumping as soon as they move from indoors to out.

JOY AND FREEDOM RESTRICTED

Unfortunately, not all of the above-mentioned joys are experienced by many girls, for it is outdoors where one sees the clearest division of children along sexist lines. By the time they reach preschool, too many female children have already learned that it is considered unseemly for girls to use their physical selves with abandon. It is expected that boys will be noisy, dirty, and physical and that this is normal and contributes to their growth and development. Girls are not expected to get as dirty as boys, and they are taught that they must be careful of their clothes and appearance even at three years of age! These expectations stifle freedom of movement, and it can safely be said that by the early elementary years many girls have developed an aversion to physical education and outdoor play that is directly related to the societal messages they have been receiving.

THE ROLE OF TEACHERS AND PARENTS

AWARENESS IS THE KEY

What can teachers and parents do to free girls (and some boys) of the inhibitions that keep their outdoor play from being the source of learning and physical development that it should be? First, as in all other areas, they must heighten their own awareness of the messages they give children. A teacher who was examining her own attitudes about outdoor time told us:

> I realized that I was the perfect role model of the shivering, inactive female for my class. I feel the cold very easily, and I found myself standing in a state of frozen tension, so constricted that I could hardly move, and counting every moment to "going in" time. Then I decided to do something to improve my situation and the image I was presenting to the children at the same time. I began to wear warmer pants and to bring lined boots on cold days, and I kept an extra old sweater near the cubbies. But, more important than dressing, I learned some exercises that increase circulation. One of these is used by police officers on the beat and consists of vigorously swinging your arms across your chest! Naturally, the children were fascinated by this aspect of a police officer, and many little cold ones began to imitate my exercise, thereby warming themselves instead of begging to go inside. I also ran in a large circle and soon the Pied Piper syndrome would take over and I'd have a following.

When I thought about it, I had done nothing inventive, just two or three common sense ordinary things, but they helped me and my children cope with cold weather so much more effectively!

DIFFERING EXPECTATIONS AND BEHAVIOR

Recently, we were observing outdoor time in one of our demonstration centers and were immediately struck by the different quality of the girls' activities. They were vigorous, not house play oriented; they ran, climbed, shouted, and were thoroughly adventuresome. When we discussed our observations with their teacher, she told us it hadn't always been that way. She said she had made herself a role model, often running and playing ball and always encouraging this kind of play. Our visit was in February and her attitude and encouragement had already produced the changes we had seen.

EDUCATIONAL IMPORTANCE OF OUTDOOR PLAY

Another thing teachers can do is to refresh their own thinking and then articulate the goals of outdoor play to parents. Very often parents are unaware that outdoor play has an important rationale in the preschool program and consider it as just a fun time for the children with no educational purpose. Usually, there is a meeting with parents at the beginning of the school year, and this is a good time to acquaint them with the educational importance of the outdoor time.

Also, teachers have to ask themselves if they are bothered, due to their own conditioning about what is appropriate behavior, by girls who are loud and play as roughly as boys. If they think that it is not appropriate behavior for girls, the girls will pick up this feeling with that special instinct that children have for adult disapproval. Conversely, if the expectation is that all children play vigorously, the children will also pick this up.

SELF-IMAGE

Another way to encourage children is to take every opportunity to make them aware that climbing, jumping, and running help them to grow. Children are always fascinated when they become aware of a process, and they will surely better appreciate and understand their bodies if their insights into how they grow are increased. This knowledge is part of the healthy self-image we want all children to have.

Circle games, pitching games, and ball games are some of the more structured activities that may help involve less active children. Often children make up variations of the popular games.

STRIKE A BALANCE

Although all of the above suggestions are ones that will help children toward a more active use of the outdoors, we do not want to imply that this is the only kind of play we feel is important, nor do we want to lose sight of the fact that timid boys will need as much help to achieve full use of the outdoors as girls. It is important to remember that during outdoor time, as in all other areas of an early childhood program, the goal is to have both girls and boys participate as fully as possible. To strike a balance, teachers may need to encourage the more passive boys and girls and guide the most active ones to an appreciation of quieter activities. Naturally, some children will strike their own balance and need little or no guidance.

CLOTHING

It may seem irrelevant to discuss clothing, but clothes affect how children participate in every area of early education work, especially outdoor activity.

All children should come to school in "work clothes," for play is children's work and they need to be comfortable and free to work in whatever they wear. This idea of wearing suitable work clothes to school is a part of preschool tradition and was pioneered in such New York City schools as City and Country, Bank Street Children's School, Ethical Culture, and Little Red School House in the early 1920s. In these schools children's play was treated with a serious attitude and with respect, for it was understood that through play children acquire the many skills they use in more formal education later. The educators who directed these schools realized that to be free to play, children must be dressed in work clothes and not the conventional school clothing considered appropriate in most schools at that time. In the words of Caroline Pratt, founder of City and Country School:

> Of course the visitor was right in her complaint: this did not look or sound like any schoolroom. But it was very much like something else. It was like a segment of grownup activity, an office, a small factory, or perhaps office and factory combined. Nor did these children look like school children, starched and clean-faced, the boys in white shirts and girls in crisp frocks.

> These children wore work clothes, dungarees or overalls, *boys and girls alike* (occasionally a dress, the exercise of individual prerogative), and they and their work clothes bore the evidence of their work.

To use blocks and roll vehicles across the floor, children must wear coveralls so that their knees do not get hurt. Work clothes are essential for the child who paints, makes collages, cooks, or does carpentry. No one, grownup or child, likes to do these sorts of activities in constricting clothes.

Warmth and Safety

The other major factor about clothing that affects children's performances is that it be appropriate for the weather. If children are overdressed or underdressed, they will not be comfortable enough to move freely or feel relaxed for indoor or outdoor play. Although boys are sometimes dressed inappropriately, girls usually suffer the most discomfort in school because they wear dresses and fancy accessories, such as party shoes, which slip on most school floors and certainly are not conducive to climbing. It is also the nature of girls' clothing that causes them to feel cold more frequently than boys. Dresses are loose-fitting garments that allow air to flow up. This is very cool in summer, but very cold in winter. Very often parents feel that tights take the place of long pants or overpants for girls, but since tights are not usually made of warm materials, this is not necessarily true. They do work well, however, as an insulating layer when they are topped by overalls or pants.

Compromise

We do not mean to suggest that girls must never wear dresses to school. Many girls pass through a stage where wearing dresses is very important to them. Perhaps one reason they go through this stage is because they perceive that they receive much more adult attention when they look "pretty." In any case, if they are allowed to wear a dress or smock top, with pants underneath (for outdoor and indoor protection), they are usually satisfied, and this solution is certainly preferable to a morning confrontation that sets the tone for an unhappy day in school. Also, if children know that their teacher expects them to wear work clothes, sets an example by wearing them also, and has the support of their parents that this is what everyone wears to school, there should not be much of a problem.

If teachers explain to parents the rationale for the clothing preferred for school and make it clear that their children will be better able to fully participate in activities, we are sure [parents] will cooperate.

SESSION 5: SEX EQUITY—MAKE IT HAPPEN
Elementary Teacher Workshop

GOALS: TO EXAMINE THE EFFECTS OF TEACHER BEHAVIORS AND EXPECTATIONS ON STUDENTS
TO INCREASE SEX EQUITY BEHAVIOR IN THE EDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT

GENERAL BUSINESS 10

Discuss comments or questions regarding the previous session and homework.

Share resources (suggested list):

- Today's Changing Roles: An Approach to Non-Sexist Teaching, by the National Education Association
- Undoing Sex Stereotypes: Research and Resources for Educators, by Guttentag and Bray
- Non-Sexist Curricular Materials for Elementary Schools, edited by Johnson

Present Session 5 goals and overview.

large group

Name tags
Sign-in sheet
Chalkboard
Newsprint
Masking tape
Markers

Poster with Session 5 goals and overview

OBJECTIVES #1 and #2

Participants will identify verbal and non-verbal behaviors and practices that limit or expand student achievement and aspiration, using the diagnostic inventory from Session 4.

Participants will identify attitudes and behaviors in student/teacher relationships that differentiate between males and females.

TEACHER AS ROLE MODEL FOR SEX EQUITY 10

Conduct the Mini-Lecture "Teacher Expectations and Behaviors."

mini-lecture

MINI-LECTURE: Teacher Expectations and Behaviors

20 Have individuals share their responses to the Worksheet "Teacher Diagnostic Inventory--Elementary," from Session 4.

worksheet

WORKSHEET: Teacher Diagnostic Inventory--Elementary (Session 4)

Newsprint with heading in each category

30 Divide participants into groups of three, and ask them to identify teacher behaviors and practices as related to sex equity in the following areas:

- Athletics (sex-segregated teams)
- Classroom environment (bulletin boards)
- Role models (teacher, PE activity)
- Playground (play groups)
- Lunchroom (staffing patterns)
- Instructional materials
- Administration

small group

10 In the large group, have participants share their responses.

large group

OBJECTIVE #3

Participants will choose to conduct one or more sex-role awareness activities in the classroom.

SEX-ROLE AWARENESS ACTIVITIES FOR THE CLASSROOM

Review the Activity Cards (Sex-Role Awareness Activities for the Classroom) with participants. Include copies of the Worksheets cited in the Activity Cards ("Sentence Completion--Student Version," "Take a Good Guess," "Opinion Poll"), and of the Reading "The Male Role Stereotype."

worksheet

ACTIVITY CARDS: Sex-Role Awareness Activities for the Classroom

SELECT OPTION

50

Select one of the following options:

Option 1: Have the teachers read through the activities. Facilitate a discussion, asking participants to identify activities to trial-test in their classrooms. Clarify as necessary and have teachers plan for the classroom activity. Have them prepare the necessary materials.

Option 2: Have display tables set up with several activities, complete with instructions and student work samples. Encourage individuals to explore and participate in some of the activities.

optional

WORKSHEETS:
Sentence Completion--Student Version

Take a Good Guess

Opinion Poll

Materials for activity development

Display table with instructions for several activities, and student samples

ALL OPTIONS

10

Have the teachers select one or more activities to trial-test in their classrooms and then report their experience back to the group.

Conduct a large group discussion to define the phrase "sex equity," so that participants make a personal application of the definition. This should include a direction they intend to take in their classrooms. (See the definition of "sex equity" in the Reading "Sex Equity Definitions" from Session 1.)

large group

HOMEWORK

5

Assign Readings for the next session.

Preview the next session.

homework

READINGS:
The Male Role Stereotype

Notes to a Change Agent

PROCESS EVALUATION

5

Conduct a process evaluation of the session, using the "Process Evaluation Form."

evaluation

ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT:
Process Evaluation Form

MINI-LECTURE: TEACHER EXPECTATIONS AND BEHAVIORS

This Mini-Lecture provides an introduction for a discussion of teacher expectations and behaviors that assign traits, abilities, and expectations to individuals on the basis of gender rather than by individual attributes.

EXPECTATION AND BEHAVIOR

There is a significant interrelationship between expectation and beha
Rosenthal and his colleagues have demonstrated the effect of *experimen*
bias on the outcome of an experiment. His classroom research with tea
expectations and the resulting effects on students' achievement has p
vided an impetus to investigate the subtle and not-so-subtle messages
students receive from teachers.

In order to identify the subtle differential behaviors that affect le
ing, let's explore some research data on teacher behavior. Then we w
investigate practices that perpetuate sex-stereotyped behavior.

PRESCHOOL TEACHERS

Serbin and her colleagues have documented the following teacher behav
in preschools that differentiated on the basis of sex:

- Teachers paid more attention to males than to females, regardless o
whether boys were misbehaving.
- Teachers gave longer and more detailed answers when responding to b
questions than to girls' questions.
- Teachers gave boys directions for doing things on their own, but sh
girls what to do or did things for them. In one classroom, boys we
given instructions on how to use the stapler to staple paper basket
whereas with girls the teacher took the basket and did the stapling
self.

- Teachers rewarded females for dependent behavior, while males received positive reinforcement for independent as well as dependent behavior.

- Females, who are likely to stay near their teacher, are restricted, sinc teachers tend to remain in the area of "fine motor skill" activities and tend to avoid activities using blocks and outside equipment.

DIFFERING APPROACHES

In elementary schools, Dweck and her colleagues found that boys received positive feedback for academic work and negative feedback for non-academic behavior (not sitting in their seats, making noise, etc.). For girls this was reversed. They received negative feedback for academic work and positive feedback for non-academic behavior (neatness, being quiet, etc.).

The significance of these differing approaches is that if someone has received largely negative feedback, a failure experience may make the individual give up. This is called "learned helplessness," and, according to Dweck et al., girls give up more easily after academic failure than boys do.

EXPANDING OPTIONS

This research serves as a catalyst to begin to examine the significance and interrelationships of *expectations*, differential *behavior* and *achievement motivation*.

In the following session, we will look at the school environment to identify areas that educators can begin to examine in an effort to expand rather than limit potential.

ACTIVITY CARDS

Sex-Role Awareness Activities for the Classroom

GIVE A GIFT

OBJECTIVE: *To select gifts for friends and explain the selections*

GROUP SIZE: Can be played individually or as a group

AGE: 4 years to adult

MATERIALS NEEDED:
1. Cards with pictures of gift items--e.g., car, flowers, ball (For older children, words can be used instead of pictures.)
2. Recording sheet divided into 3 columns--gift number, gift, and name of friend I'd give a gift to

GIFT NUMBER	NAME OF GIFT	NAME OF FRIEND

PROCESS:
- Introduce the activity.
- Child takes gift card with number 1 on it and makes the decision as to how to record it. He or she then passes the card to the next player. Child continues until all cards are used.

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DRESS-UP DAY

OBJECTIVES: *To select a future work role*
To relate work roles to female/male choices

GROUP SIZE: Any size group

AGE: 5-7 years

MATERIALS NEEDED: Developed by children

PROCESS:
- Explain to the students that they should come to school dressed up for the occupation they would like to have.
- In class, conduct a group discussion on the role choices students made.

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MYSELF TWENTY YEARS FROM NOW

OBJECTIVE: *To identify future life-styles and work roles as they relate to male-female roles*

GROUP SIZE: 8-30

AGE: 6-13 years

MATERIALS NEEDED:
1. Teacher provides cardboard exhibit units, which can be made from cardboard boxes.
2. Scissors, paper, pencils, and crayons

PROCESS:
- Ask the children to make up a story with pictures about their lives twenty years from now.
- Next, make a chart showing the children's predictions of their life- and work-styles.
- Conduct a discussion of the choices made by boys and girls. Point out sex-role stereotypes.

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MAKE A MEDIA COLLAGE!

OBJECTIVES: *To identify sex-role stereotyping in the media*
To discuss its effects on students

GROUP SIZE: Small groups or whole class

AGE: 7 to adult

MATERIALS NEEDED: Lots of magazines, newspapers, old books, scissors, glue, and backing paper

PROCESS:
- Discuss with students examples of sex-role stereotyping.
- Give students time to locate examples and to construct a collage.
- Hang the collage for all to see and conduct a discussion.

WORK ROLES

OBJECTIVE: *To identify work roles that are open to both men and women*

GROUP SIZE: 8-30

AGE: 5-13 years

MATERIALS NEEDED:
1. A bag filled with pictures of people in different work roles
2. Three bags labeled Male, Female, and Both

PROCESS:
- Teacher or child pulls a picture from the bag and shows it to the group.
- The group discusses the work role and votes on whether it should go in the Male, Female, or Both bag.

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SHOES

OBJECTIVE: *To draw pictures of girls and boys filling the same shoes*

GROUP SIZE: 5-30+

AGE: 6-12 years

MATERIALS NEEDED: Drawing paper with pictures of shoes drawn on the bottom of each sheet (e.g., tennis shoes, hiking boots, ski boots); crayons and markers

PROCESS:
- Tell the children to choose a picture of a pair of shoes and then draw the person wearing them.
- Share the pictures at a class meeting and discuss.

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I'M PROUD

OBJECTIVE: *To share personal feelings with the class to increase positive ethnic or sex-role identity*

GROUP SIZE: 2-15

AGE: 6 to adult

MATERIALS NEEDED: A smile and a supportive attitude from the teacher

PROCESS:
- This is a short activity that can be used as a warm-up for a reading, or as a closure activity after a social studies class.
- Have the students sit in a circle and give each an opportunity to share one (or more) "I'm proud of myself because ________" statements with the group. Of course, any student who wishes to may pass or not comment.

Adapted from:
Toward Equality. Dallas Independent School District

JOB SURVEY

OBJECTIVE: *To identify the kinds of jobs that people do around the house*

GROUP SIZE: 5-50

AGE: 7-18 years

MATERIALS NEEDED: Paper, pencils, crayons, graph paper

PROCESS:
- Take a survey of kids' work and jobs around the house. Examples: cook, wash dishes, babysit, cut the grass, carry out garbage.
- Create a chart, listing all jobs mentioned across the top and all students' names down the side.
- Have each student put a check mark under each of the jobs he or she does at home.
- Point out and discuss indications of sex-role stereotyping.

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OPINION POLL

OBJECTIVES: *To identify characteristics that are thought to be sex-linked*
To state the reasons for each choice

GROUP SIZE: Any size

AGE: 8-13 years

MATERIALS NEEDED: The Worksheet "Opinion Poll"

PROCESS:

- Ask students to read the opinion poll and check the box they believe to be true. Stress that there is no single correct answer. For younger children, read the statements.
- After children have marked the poll, ask them to share their responses and to support their choices.

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"LETTERS TO THE EDITOR" (AND OTHER FOLKS)

OBJECTIVE: *To choose and practice action appropriate to personal values*

GROUP SIZE: 5 to 35

AGE: 12 to adult

MATERIALS NEEDED: Plain paper, envelopes, stamps

PROCESS:

- When students find perceived or actual discrimination in books, materials, practices, or laws, the teacher can encourage them to write to the appropriate authority, which might include senators, members of Congress, other political figures, publishers of textbooks or school materials, principals, athletic directors, newspaper editors, radio and television station managers.
- When letters to the editor are published or replies received, post them on the bulletin board to serve as the basis for other lessons or discussions.

Adapted from:
Toward Equality," Dallas Independent School District

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THINGS I CAN DO

OBJECTIVE: *To identify activities that a child can do*

GROUP SIZE: Any size

AGE: 4-6 years

MATERIALS NEEDED: Several small squares of construction paper stapled together as a book (one for each child), old magazines, scissors, glue, and pencils

PROCESS: Ask the children to construct a book titled "(Bobby)'s I Can Book." They should cut out pictures of activities they do or objects they use, and glue them onto the pages. Under each picture the child writes (or dictates for the teacher) an appropriate sentence. For example:

I can feed my dog.
I can put on my pajamas.
I can tie my shoes.
I can ride a two-wheeler.

Cont.

materials developed by:
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WHO USES THIS?

OBJECTIVES: *To identify sex-role stereotyping by identifying objects*
To discuss sex roles

GROUP SIZE: 2 to 30+

AGE: 5-10 years

MATERIALS NEEDED: Box of objects--hammer, pot holder, comb, stethoscope, washcloth, football, pan, hand lotion, scrub brush, rocket model, sponge, nail file, X ray, other miscellaneous items from around the home and school

PROCESS:

- Set down the box of objects and ask students to sort the objects into groups of items used by girls, by boys, or by both.
- Discussion may follow or you can ask clarifying questions pertaining to sex stereotyping.

Cont.

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THINGS I CAN DO, page 2

Note: One four-year-old, Amy, glued a picture of a baby and announced, "I can have a baby." Carter followed her example and found a picture of a baby to put in his book. This was followed by considerable and heated discussion among the children. Carter waited for a lull and then said, "But I can be a father!" The children involved reconsidered the situation and agreed that Carter's "I can" was as valid as Amy's.

WHO USES THIS? page 2

VARIATIONS:

1. Objects in the box could be objects used in sports, objects used in theater arts, or objects used in occupations. As above, the child sorts according to items used by girls, items used by boys, or by both.
2. Children can write the names of the objects and draw pictures. Children can write how they would use the item and some descriptive words.

9

BOY WORD OR GIRL WORD?

OBJECTIVES: *To identify characteristics that students think (believe) are masculine traits or feminine traits*
To discuss why students believe these traits are feminine or masculine

GROUP SIZE: 30+

AGE: 8-adult

MATERIALS NEEDED: Magazines, white art paper, scissors, glue

PROCESS:

- Tell the students to divide a piece of paper in half and label one side Girl and one side Boy.
- They should then go through the magazines and cut out words that sound like "boy" words and "girl" words, and paste them in the right sections. If there are words that can be boy or girl words, they should paste them on the line. (See example on the other side of this card.)

Cont.

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CREATIVE WRITING

OBJECTIVE: *To have students write about their own sex-role stereotyping*

GROUP SIZE: Class or small group

AGE: 8-18 years

MATERIALS NEEDED: Paper, pencils, and lots of imagination

PROCESS:

- Give one or both of the questions below to students for consideration.

  Question 1: Think of what might happen if you suddenly had a twin of the opposite sex. What could that twin do that you couldn't do, and what could you do that your twin couldn't?

  Question 2: Pretend you are the parent of two small children, a boy and a girl. How would you raise your children? What would you expect of each child? Would both children have the same toys? What would happen if they both did something bad one day? Would they both play sports, take music lessons, do chores?

Cont.

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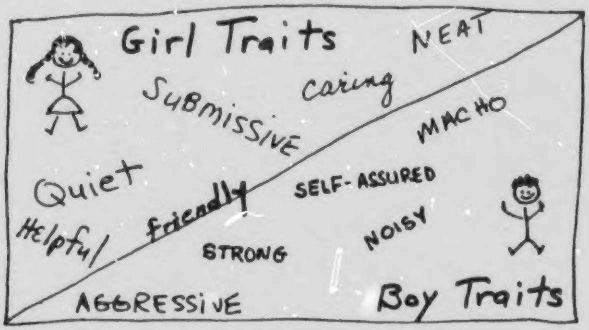
BOY WORD OR GIRL WORD? page 2

- Hang the posters up for all to observe and discuss.



CREATIVE WRITING, page 2

- After the students have finished, have them read their stories or display them for others to read.
- Bring out in discussion some ideas that the students have expressed.

TAKE A GOOD GUESS

OBJECTIVES: *To estimate the percentage of women and men who do not fill certain jobs*
To discuss how this stereotyping might affect students' futures

GROUP SIZE: Small groups or whole class

AGE: 8 to adult

MATERIALS NEEDED: The Worksheet "Take a Good Guess"

PROCESS:

- Have students read the directions and the occupations listed on the Worksheet.
- If students have any other occupations they would like to list, they should add them to the bottom of their Worksheets.
- Instruct each student to take a good guess at the ratio of men to women in business today. Make 100 the total (e.g., 45 men to 55 women).
- Have each student list the skills required for each job.

Cont.

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TOYS TEACH TOO

OBJECTIVES: *To classify toys as "girl" toys and "boy" toys*
To analyze how this teaches children socially approved roles

GROUP SIZE: Any size

AGE: 5-13 years

MATERIALS NEEDED: Toy catalogues or other old books and magazines with pictures of toys, three poster boards, scissors, glue, markers

PROCESS:

- Divide the class into two single-sex groups. Give the girls a poster board marked "Girls" and the boys a poster board marked "Boys."
- Let each group clip pictures of toys for their sex, and glue the pictures to their poster.
- Later, let the groups exchange posters. Ask each group, "Do you see any toys that you would like to have?"

Adapted from:
Toward Equality, Dallas Independent School District

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TAKE A GOOD GUESS, page 2

- After completing this task, students may do their own research, or the teacher may go over the actual statistics.
- Discuss with the students: How far off were you? What does all this have to do with you?

TOYS TEACH TOO, page 2

- Bring the class back together and ask the students to make a poster of toys that everyone would like to play with.

WHO AM I?

OBJECTIVES: *To identify sex-role stereotyping through role play*
To discuss sex-role stereotyping

GROUP SIZE: 30 or fewer

AGE: 5-10 years

MATERIALS NEEDED: None

PROCESS:
- Select one child and whisper a wor[illegible]o act out (suggested words: boy, girl, man, woman, grownup, [illegible] girl teenager, baby, father, mother, any vocation).
- Ask the other children to guess wha[illegible]s being acted out.
- At completion of each role play, ask, "Do only boys (or girls, or fathers, etc.) do that (what the child acted out)?"
- Discussion may follow each role play.

Cont.

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materials developed by:

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MY DESIRE

OBJECTIVES: *To identify a desired vocation in life*
To determine the constraints and risks involved in a vocational choice

GROUP SIZE: 2 to 30+

AGE: 8-12 years

MATERIALS NEEDED: Pencils and paper

PROCESS:
- Have students mark off paper into three sections and label them A, B, C.
- Ask students to fill in the spaces according to the following:
  1. In A, draw a picture or symbol of what you would like to become (your vocation).
  2. In B, draw a picture or symbol of a constraint or roadblock to your achieving the vocation.
  3. In C, draw a picture or symbol of a risk involved.

Cont.

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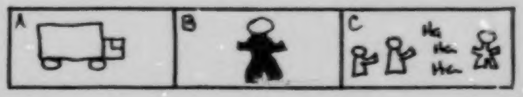
WHO AM I? page 2

VARIATIONS:
- Give a child a card with a word on it to act out.
- Two or more children may act out a pantomime.

MY DESIRE, page 2

Below is a completed example by a girl:



VARIATION: Have students write words in the spaces instead of using symbols or pictures:

A	B	C
TRUCK DRIVER	STRENGTH	Being laughed at

- When students have completed the activity, divide them into groups of three or four to share and compare their papers. Then discuss them as a class.

LINING UP AROUND SEX ROLE STEREOTYPES

OBJECTIVE: *To select an occupation and discuss the choices*

GROUP SIZE: 5 to 35

AGE: 5-18 years

MATERIALS NEEDED: Chalkboard or poster board

PROCESS:

- Write the following occupations horizontally across the top of the chalkboard or large poster board: business executive, doctor, principal, engineer, pilot, ballet dancer, nurse, homemaker, secretary, nursery school teacher.
- Tell students to select the occupation they would most like to role-play for a friend or younger student. Once students have made their choices, tell them to go to the board and stand near the occupation they have selected. You can expect more than one or even several students to select some of the more popular career choices. After students are standing by their selected occupations, ask them to look around the room and summarize any patterns they can find in how

Cont.

Adapted from:
BEING A MAN, David Sadker

REVERSING GENDER ROLES IN ELEMENTARY STORIES

OBJECTIVE: *To reverse sex roles in reading materials*

GROUP SIZE: 3 to 15

AGE: 8-13 years

MATERIALS NEEDED: Stories, reading books, etc.

PROCESS:

- Students will read a story together as a class or in a small group, substituting a female name for each male character and a male name for each female character in the story.
- After the students complete the story, the teacher will help the students examine their feelings and reactions. Of course, the questions should be focused on the individual story selected. Some important kinds of discussion questions might include:

1. Did the story sound funny when the roles were reversed?
2. Did you like to read about a girl (or woman) making decisions, getting others out of trouble, or solving their problems?

Cont.

Adapted from:
Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education

[illegible]

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LINING UP AROUND SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPES, page 2

other students selected occupations. It is very likely that, with a few exceptions, most boys will be standing toward the left side of the board and most girls will be standing toward the right side of the board.

- Conduct a class discussion.

1. Why did boys generally choose one set of occupations and girls choose another set of occupations?
2. Are boys naturally better at being business executives, doctors, principals, engineers and pilots? Are girls better at being ballet dancers, nurses, homemakers, secretaries, and nursery school teachers?
3. Ask any boys who chose occupations on the right side of the board, or any girls who selected the traditionally male occupations, why they made that decision. Ask them how they felt if most of the people around them were of the other sex. (Or, if no students made nontraditional choices for their sex, ask students how they feel about the pattern they see--all boys on one side, all girls on the other.)

REVERSING GENDER ROLES IN ELEMENTARY STORIES, page 2

3. Did it seem strange to read about a father taking care of the house while the mother went to a salaried job? Why?
4. Did it seem strange to read about a male character who is confused or needing help? Why?
5. Was it funny to read about boys worrying about what kinds of clothes to wear, or how their hair looked?
6. Was it different to read a story about girls doing adventurous, brave, or dangerous activities?
7. Did it seem "natural" to read about boys cooking, sewing, or babysitting? Why?
8. If the main character was a famous person, such as a president or diplomat, did it seem strange to read about a woman in this role?

OF BOYS AND MEN

OBJECTIVE: *To identify the characteristics contributing to the male role stereotype*

GROUP SIZE: Any size

AGE: 9 to adult

MATERIALS NEEDED: The Worksheet "Sentence Completion--Student Version"

PROCESS:

- Distribute the Worksheet and ask students to complete the sentences according to their own personal views.
- After the sentences are completed, conduct a class discussion comparing student answers.
  1. Ask students to explain the reasons behind their answers. Can they differentiate between answers that reflect the male stereotype and those that recognize individual differences?
  2. Give students time to review their responses. Ask whether anyone wants to modify or change his or her original responses, and allow students time to do so.

Adapted from:
BEING A MAN, David Sadker

THE MALE ROLE STEREOTYPE

OBJECTIVES: *To identify the characteristics of the male role stereotype*
To identify problems that result from conforming to the male role stereotype

GROUP SIZE: Any size

AGE: 11 to adult

MATERIALS NEEDED: The Reading "The Male Role Stereotype"

PROCESS:

- Distribute and have students read "The Male Role Stereotype." After the students have completed the Reading, conduct a discussion:
  1. What are the characteristics of the male sex-role stereotype? Can you think of male roles on television who demonstrate these characteristics? Who and how?
  2. What are the costs of the male sex-role stereotype? Can you think of boys or men you know personally who are paying the cost of conforming to this stereotype? Give examples.

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WORKSHEET 12

SENTENCE COMPLETION—STUDENT VERSION

INSTRUCTIONS: Complete each phrase with whatever comes to mind first.

1. A boy who is not good at sports______________________________
2. I get upset when I see a girl______________________________
3. A girl who is good at sports______________________________
4. I respond to crying women by______________________________
5. Young boys should/shouldn't be allowed to play with dolls because_____
   ____
6. I have learned that girls should never________________________
7. Girls should/shouldn't help with cooking and cleaning at home because
   ____
8. The hardest thing about being a boy is________________________
9. I have learned that boys should never________________________
10. The hardest thing about being a girl is_______________________
11. I respond to crying men by_______________________________

12. In general, women do/do not lead happier lives than men because_______

____

13. I get upset when I see a boy______________________________

14. The best thing about being a boy is_________________________

15. A tomboy is____

16. A sissy is____

17. Boys should/shouldn't help with cooking and cleaning at home because

____

18. The best thing about being a girl is________________________

19. In general, men do/do not lead happier lives than women because_______

____

20. I admire men/women for their______________________________

WORKSHEET 13

TAKE A GOOD GUESS

Adapted from materials developed by The Children's School.

INSTRUCTIONS: Guess what percentage of men and women there are in each of the jobs below.

OCCUPATION	% MEN	% WOMEN
Accountant		
Bookkeeper		
Secretary		
File Clerk		
Auto Mechanic		
Carpenter		
Secondary School Teacher		
Elementary School Teacher		
School Administrator		
Cosmetician		
Dental Assistant		
Dentist		
Doctor (General)		
Veterinarian		

OCCUPATION	% MEN	% WOMEN
Psychologist		
Lawyer		
Police Officer		
Nurse		
Bank Officer		
Bank Teller		

INSTRUCTIONS: Use this list to find the correct percentages.

OCCUPATION	% MEN	% WOMEN
Accountant	78	22
Auto Mechanic	98	2
Bank Officer	82	18
Bank Teller	10	90
Bookkeeper	12	88
Carpenter	99	1
Cashier	13	87
Chemist	88	12
Cook/Chef	40	60
Cosmetician	8	92
Custodian	87	13
Dental Assistant	2	98
Dentist	99	1
Doctor (General)	88	12
Economist	81	19
Electrician	98	2
Elementary School Teacher	14	86
Engineer	94	6
File Clerk	14	86
Flight Attendant	5	95
Guard	95	5
Insurance Agent	87	13
Lawyer	94	6
Librarian	17	83
Nurse	3	97
Painter & Paperhanger	96	4
Pharmacist	86	14
Psychologist	60	40
Plumber	99	1
Police Officer	97	3
Real Estate Worker	64	36
Receptionist	3	97
Retail Sales Worker	30	70
School Administrator	79	21
Secondary School Teacher	51	49
Secretary	4	96

OCCUPATION	% MEN	% WOMEN
Social Worker	39	61
Telephone Operator	4	96
Waiter/Waitress	12	88
Veterinarian	95	5

Source: 1975 Handbook on Women Workers. U.S. Department of Labor, Employment Standards Administration, Women's Bureau, 1975.

399

400

WORKSHEET 14

OPINION POLL

Adapted from materials developed by The Children's School.

MALE______ FEMALE______ AGE______

INSTRUCTIONS: You are about to take part in an important opinion poll! It will show what you believe to be true about boys and girls. Please check after each question in the box that best describes your feelings.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DON'T KNOW	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
1. Boys are braver than girls.					
2. Girls are smarter than boys.					
3. Girls are more cheerful than boys.					
4. Boys can be on their own more than girls.					
5. Girls are more shy than boys.					
6. Boys are more athletic than girls.					
7. Boys know how to say what they want better than girls do.					
8. Girls are more loyal than boys.					
9. Boys are more forceful than girls.					
10. Girls are more understanding of other people's feelings than boys are.					
11. Boys are more logical than girls and do better in math and science.					

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DON'T KNOW	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
12. Boys are better leaders than girls.					
13. Girls are more easily fooled than boys.					
14. Girls are better than boys at helping younger children.					
15. Girls are more gentle than boys.					
16. Boys have more self-confidence than girls.					
17. Boys cannot learn to cook and sew as well as girls.					
18. Girls are neater than boys.					
19. Boys need to continue their education after high school more than girls do.					
20. Girls are more concerned than boys about how they look.					
21. Boys are not as honest as girls.					
22. Girls cannot learn to use tools and fix cars as well as boys.					
23. Boys are more adventurous than girls.					
24. A girl cannot be as good a doctor, lawyer, plumber, or carpenter as a boy can.					
25. Boys should not help with the housework.					
26. A woman would not make a good U.S. president.					

READING 15

THE MALE ROLE STEREOTYPE

Adapted from Being a Man: A Unit of Instructional Activities on Male Role Stereotyping, by David Sadker. Washington, D.C.: Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education, 1976.

INTRODUCTION

When you first consider that many men now feel that they are victims of sex-role stereotyping, your natural response might be: "Are you kidding? Why should men feel discriminated against? Men have the best jobs; they are the corporation presidents and the political leaders. Everyone says, 'It's a man's world.' What do men have to be concerned about? What are their problems?"

It is obvious that men hold most of the influential and important positions in society, and it does seem that many men "have it made." The problem is that men pay a high cost for the ways they have been stereotyped and for the roles they play.

To understand why many men and women are concerned, we need to take a look at the male role stereotype. Consider the following "Code of Conduct":

CODE OF CONDUCT: THE MALE ROLE STEREOTYPE

ACT "TOUGH" Acting tough is a key element of the male role stereotype. Many boys and men feel that they have to show that they are strong and tough, that they can "take it" and "dish it out" as well. You've probably run into some boys and men who like to push people around, use their strength, and act tough. In a conflict, these males would never consider giving in, even when surrender or compromise would be the smartest or most compassionate course of action.

HIDE EMOTIONS

This aspect of the male role stereotype teaches males to suppress their emotions and to hide feelings of fear, sorrow, or tenderness. Even as small children, they are warned not to be "crybabies." As grown men they show that they have learned this lesson well, and they become very efficient at holding back tears and keeping a "stiff upper lip."

EARN "BIG BUCKS"

Men are trained to be the primary and often the only source of income for the family. So men try to choose occupations that pay well, and then they stick with those jobs, even when they might prefer to try something else. Boys and men are taught that earning a good living is important, so important that a man who doesn't earn "big money" is considered inadequate in meeting society's expectations of what a "real man" should do. In fact, men are often evaluated not on how kind or compassionate or thoughtful they are, but on how much money they make.

GET THE "RIGHT KIND OF JOB"

If a boy decides to become a pilot, he will receive society's stamp of approval, for that is the "right" kind of job for a man. But if a boy decides to become an airline steward, many people think that quite strange. Boys can decide to be doctors, mechanics, or business executives, but if a boy wants to become a nurse, secretary, librarian, ballet dancer, or kindergarten teacher, he will have a tough time. His friends and relatives will probably try to talk him out of his decision, because it's just not part of the male role stereotype.

COMPETE--INTENSELY

Another aspect of the male role stereotype is to be super-competitive. This competitive drive is seen not only on athletic fields, but in school and later work. This commitment to competition leads to still another part of the male stereotype: getting ahead of other people to become a winner.

WIN--AT ALMOST ANY COST

From the Little League baseball field to getting jobs that pay the most money, boys and men are taught to win at whatever they may try to do. They must work and strive and compete so that they can get ahead of other people, no matter how many personal and even moral sacrifices are made along the way to the winner's circle.

These are some of the major features of the male stereotype. And certainly, some of them may not appear to be harmful. Yet when we look more closely, we find that many males who do "buy" the message of the male role stereotype end up paying a very high price for their conformity.

THE COST OF THE CODE: WHEN MEN GIVE UP

OVERCOMMITMENT TO COMPETITION

Men who become highly involved in competition and winning can lose their perspective and good judgment. Competition by itself is not necessarily bad, and we've all enjoyed some competitive activities. But when a man tries to fulfill the male stereotype, and compete and win at any cost, he runs into problems. You've probably seen sore losers (and even sore winners)--sure signs of overcommitment to competition. Real competitors have trouble making friends, because they're always trying to go "one up" on their friends. And when cooperation is needed, true-blue competitors have a difficult time cooperating.

The next time you see hockey players hitting one another with their hockey sticks, or politicians or businessmen willing to do almost anything for a Senate seat or a big deal, you know that you are seeing some of the problems of the male sex-role stereotype: an overcommitment to competition and the need to win at any cost.

STOICISM

Hiding emotions can hurt. For one thing, hiding emotions confuses people as to what someone's real feelings are. Men who hide their emotions can be misunderstood by others who might see them as uncaring and insensitive. And men who are always suppressing their feelings may put themselves under heavy psychological stress. This pressure can be physically unhealthy as well.

THE WORK LOAD

The heavy emphasis that the male stereotype puts on earning big money also creates problems. Some men choose careers they really do not like, just because the job pays well. Others choose jobs they like at first, only to find out later that they would rather do something else. But they stay with their jobs anyway, because they can't afford to earn less money.

In trying to earn as much as possible, many men work long hours and weekends. Some even take second jobs. When men do this, they begin to lead one-track lives--the track that leads to the office or business door. They drop outside interests and hobbies. They have less and less time to spend with their families. That's one reason why some fathers never really get to know their own children, even though they may love them very much.

HEALTH

Many men who are absorbed by competition, winning, and earning big bucks pay a terrible price in terms of their physical health. With the continual pressure to compete, be tough, earn money, with little time left for recreation and other interests, men find themselves much more likely than women to fall victim to serious disease. In fact, on the average, men die eight years sooner than women. Loss of life is a high cost to pay for following the code of the male role stereotype.

SOCIAL PRESSURE

Boys and men who do not follow the male code of conduct may also find their lives more difficult because of this stereotype. For example, some boys choose to become nurses rather than doctors, kindergarten teachers rather than lawyers, artists rather than electricians. Social pressure can make it terribly difficult for males who enter these female-stereotyped careers. Other boys and men feel very uncomfortable with the continual pressure to compete and win.

Some boys do not want to hide their feelings or project an image of being strong and tough. These males may be gentle, compassionate, sensitive human beings who are puzzled with and troubled by the male role stereotype. When society stereotypes any group--by race, religion, or sex--it becomes difficult for individuals to break out of the stereotype and be themselves.

SUMMARY

Now you are aware of just what the male sex-role stereotype is, and you know some of the problems it can create. Use this information to understand and judge the social pressure placed on males to conform to the stereotype.

READING 16

NOTES TO A CHANGE AGENT

This Reading was prepared by Resources for Non-Sexist Environments, a federally funded WEEA project, to accompany EXPANDING OPTIONS, sex equity workshops for school communities, K-12.

INTRODUCTION

Change may be defined as any significant alteration in the current state of affairs for an individual, a group, or an organization.

In the natural processes of growth and maturation, and with the passage of time, all things inevitably change. But people are often resistant to change, and apathy is a common form of resistance. We feel more comfortable with the status quo, or the situation as we know it, and feel uneasy with the unknown, which would come with change.

Change may be considered a challenge to one's present situation, which for some individuals is a stimulating experience. For others change causes uneasiness, as new, unknown behavior may be called for. Fear of change can encompass fears that relate to failure, the unknown, giving up the familiar, and diminished power or control.

In attempting to bring about change, it's important to remember that change in one part of a system causes changes in other parts of the system, which may not be anticipated or controlled. Many small changes added together result in real change.

ROLE OF THE CHANGE AGENT

A change agent, or one who is seeking change in a system or an organization, must be sensitive to other people's sense of being threatened or feeling uncertain. Two ways of responding effectively to others' fear are to provide information and to offer understanding and empathy.

According to Ronald Ellis in *The Change Agent's Guide to Innovative Education* (1973), the change agent can function in any or all of at least four primary ways. These include the following roles:

- Catalyst
- Solution giver
- Process helper
- Resource linker

Catalyst The catalyst works at helping the group overcome its inertia and actually paves the way for change by lessening people's resistance to it. In education today, this role can be taken by parents, students, staff, or school board members who are concerned with the present workings of a school system. These individuals or groups do not necessarily have the answers, but they are dissatisfied with the way things are. They can energize the problem-solving process by voicing their dissatisfaction.

Solution Giver The solution giver has definite ideas about what changes ought to take place. Although the right solutions are of central importance, another factor in any change process is timing. The solution giver must know *when* and *how* to offer the solutions so that they can be implemented effectively.

Process Helper The process helper is the key role of the change agent. This person can assist in numerous ways, for example:

- Facilitating recognition and definition of needs by the group.
- Assisting the group in setting objectives for change.
- Showing the group how to find resources.
- Helping the group select or create solutions.
- Aiding the implementation of these solutions.

- Assisting in evaluation of the process and checking to see that needs are met adequately.

Resource Linker

The resource linker has the job of bringing together all the necessary ingredients to support the desired change. Resources might include financial backing; identifying and procuring people with time, motivation, and needed skills; and expertise in the process of change itself. A person who can link resources and needs both inside and outside the system in question is truly valuable in any change process.

One really needs to be able to assess one's own skills to be able to work effectively for change within a system or organization. One must be able to tap the resources of any group to help facilitate the desired change. Active listening is necessary, to find the talents, motivations, and interests of individual members, and to find the sources of resistance in the group.

REACTIONS TO CHANGE

People will not respond well if they are told that they must change. Therefore, an effective change agent will attempt to gain a trusting and cooperative working relationship with the group in question. If the group includes a few key people in positions of power, their support should be gained. Then the process can begin at various levels.

The types of reactions a change agent might find to proposed changes vary. However, the following stages describe human reactions that are a normal part of the learning or change process:

- Shock or surprise--"What?" (reacting strongly to any significant challenge to our perception)
- Disbelief--"Ah, come on, that doesn't happen to me (them)." (active disbelief and resistance to new information)
- Guilt--"Oh, I did *that*?" (feeling inadequate or guilty for past and present actions)
- Projection--"This lousy system, etc." (projecting one's guilt onto other persons and/or circumstances, blaming them)

- Rationalization--"It's the result of our cultural heritage." (a form of resistance that aims to explain and/or excuse behaviors)
- Intellectualization--"Let me think about it for a while." (may be resistance or the beginning of problem solving)
- Acceptance (admission that new behavior and perceptions are necessary for personal and organizational growth)
- Integration and action (incorporation of new awareness and knowledge into behavior and action)

These are not always clear-cut stages; they may overlap or be experienced in a different sequence, or they may not occur at all.

CHANGE PLANNING

It is important to remember that in teaching people *how* to change, you must provide not only cognitive information concerning *why* change is necessary, but also motivational influences or payoffs that are *emotionally satisfying*. Our knowledge that change is needed, for whatever reasons we can think of, is not sufficient to cause people to go through the uncertainty and risks that come with change. Motivational supports for each group affected must be ascertained.

The change agent needs a personal power base in order to be effective. This includes a support group, the ability to be assertive, knowledge of the subject area, and commitment to the task at hand.

A good change plan requires a systematic approach, with careful thought and planning. It could include the following steps:

- Identify the problem.
- Develop a plan.
- Do your homework.
- Implement your plan.
- Evaluate and follow up.

REFERENCES

Ellis, Ronald G. *The Change Agent's Guide to Innovative Education*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Education Technology, 1973.

Kaser, Joyce; Matthews, Martha; and McCune, Shirley. *Implementing Title IX and Attaining Sex Equity in Education*. Washington, D.C.: Resource Center for Sex Roles in Education, 1977.

SESSION 6: TEACHER AS CATALYST FOR CHANGE

Elementary Teacher Workshop

GOALS: TO DEVELOP AWARENESS OF THE STAGES OF CHANGE AND THE ROLES OF CHANGE AGENTS
TO DEVELOP A VIABLE ACTION PLAN

Name tags
Sign-in sheet
Chalkboard
Newsprint
Masking tape
Markers
Overhead projector

GENERAL BUSINESS

10

Invite comments and questions from the previous session and homework.

Check on grades and credit information, if applicable.

Share resource (suggested):

- The Change Agent's Guide to Innovative Education, by Ellis

Present Session 6 goals and overview.

large group

Poster with Session 6 goals and overview

OBJECTIVE #1

Participants will identify principal stages of change and the roles of change agents.

ELEMENTS OF CHANGE

10

Conduct the Mini-Lecture "Elements of Change," using the Transparency.

mini-lecture

MINI-LECTURE: Elements of Change

transparency

TRANSPARENCY MASTER: Roles of a Change Agent/Reactions to Change

10

Facilitate a brief period of questions and discussion with the large group, having participants identify stages of change and their change roles as teachers.

OBJECTIVES #2 and #3

Participants will demonstrate the ability to use force-field analysis to problem-solve sex equity situations.

Participants will prioritize and design elements of an action plan for their school community.

PLANNING FOR ACTION

large group

Introduce force-field analysis action planning.

20 Facilitate a large group discussion to determine the focus of an action plan. Participants should select one of the following areas for concentration: individual classroom, school site, or district level.

90 Distribute the Worksheet "A Guide to Action: Force-Field Analysis," and conduct the force-field analysis by using the process outlined in the Worksheet.

worksheet

WORKSHEET: A Guide to Action: Force-Field Analysis

HOMEWORK

5 Distribute the Worksheets "Desired Student Behaviors" and "My Action Plan." Encourage participants to use the Worksheets to guide them in developing their personal action plans.

Preview the next session.

homework

WORKSHEETS: Desired Student Behaviors

My Action Plan

ASSESSMENT (optional post-testing)

If the post-testing assessment is given, adjust activity times accordingly. (See the Assessment Instruments "What Do You Know About Sex Equity?" "Adult Rating Scale," and "Person-Concept Incongruency Scale" in Session 1.) Arrange to share the results with participants.

ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENTS: Person-Concept Incongruency Scale (Session 1)

Adult Rating Scale (Session 1)

What Do You Know About Sex Equity? (Session 1)

evaluation

PROCESS EVALUATION

5 Conduct a process evaluation of the session, using the "Process Evaluation Form."

ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT: Process Evaluation Form

MINI-LECTURE: ELEMENTS OF CHANGE

This Mini-Lecture provides information on the change process, reactions to change, and the roles of a change agent.

DEFINING CHANGE

Change may be defined as any significant alteration in the current state of affairs for an individual, a group, or an organization. Change is inevitable as part of the natural process of growth and maturation. People are generally more comfortable with the status quo, for change entails risk as well as challenge.

SENSITIVITY: THE KEY

Fear of change can encompass fears of failure, of the unknown, of giving up familiar satisfactions, and of diminished power or control.

It is important to remember that change in one part of a system produces change in other parts. Many small changes added together result in real change.

A *change agent* must be sensitive to other people's sense of being threatened or uncertain. Two ways of responding effectively to others' fear are to provide information and to offer understanding and empathy.

ROLES OF A CHANGE AGENT

[Use the Transparency "Roles of a Change Agent/Reactions to Change."] A change agent can function in any or all of at least four primary ways. These include a *catalyst*, who helps initiate change; a *solution giver*, who has definite ideas regarding what changes ought to take place; a *process helper*, who plays a key role in facilitating problem solving by the group; and a *resource linker*, who brings together necessary ingredients to support the desired change.

BUILDING POSITIVE RELATIONSHIPS

To work effectively within any system, a change agent must assess personal skills and tap the resources of the group. An effective change agent attempts to gain a trusting, cooperative relationship with the group. People will not change if they're told to change.

A change agent needs a personal power base that includes a *support group*, *assertiveness*, *knowledge*, and *commitment* to the task at hand.

REACTIONS TO CHANGE

Reactions to change vary. The following stages of reactions usually accompany a change or learning process. They are not always clear-cut, they may overlap, they may appear in a different sequence, or they may not occur at all. [Refer again to the Transparency.]

- *Shock* or *surprise*--strong reaction to any significant challenge to perception
- *Disbelief*--active disbelief and resistance to new information
- *Guilt*--feeling of inadequacy or guilt for past and present actions
- *Projection*--projecting one's own guilt onto other persons and/or circumstances, blaming them
- *Rationalization*--a form of resistance that aims to explain and/or excuse behaviors
- *Intellectualization*--resistance, *or* the beginning of problem solving
- *Acceptance*--admission that new behavior and perceptions are necessary for personal and organizational growth
- *Integration* and *action*--incorporation of new awareness and knowledge into behavior and action

SYSTEMATIC APPROACH

A good change plan requires a systematic approach, which might include:

- Step 1--Identifying the problem
- Step 2--Developing a plan
- Step 3--Doing your homework
- Step 4--Implementing the plan
- Step 5--Evaluating and following up on the plan

TM 25

REACTIONS TO CHANGE

CATALYST	Helps initiate change
SOLUTION GIVER	Has definite ideas regarding what changes ought to take place
PROCESS HELPER	Plays a key role to facilitate problem solving by the group
RESOURCE LINKER	Brings together necessary ingredients to support the desired change

ROLES OF A CHANGE AGENT

SHOCK or SURPRISE	Strong reaction to any significant challenge to perception
DISBELIEF	Active disbelief and resistance to new information
GUILT	Feeling of inadequacy or guilt for past and present actions
PROJECTION	Projection of one's own guilt onto other persons and/or circumstances, blaming them
RATIONALIZATION	A form of resistance that aims to explain and/or excuse behaviors
INTELLECTUALIZATION	Resistance, *or* the beginning of problem solving
ACCEPTANCE	Admission that new behavior and perceptions are necessary for personal and organizational growth
INTEGRATION and ACTION	Incorporation of new awareness and knowledge into behavior and action

WORKSHEET 15

A GUIDE TO ACTION: FORCE-FIELD ANALYSIS

Adapted from materials developed by Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education.

The systematic approach in this action guide will help you clarify the "what" and "how" of your change efforts.

Step 1:	IDENTIFY THE PROBLEM	a. Assess your interests. b. Collect information. c. Find out who's interested.
Step 2:	DEVELOP A PLAN (force-field analysis)	a. Formulate your change goal(s). b. Analyze the forces for and against change. c. Identify possible actions/strategies. d. Select action steps. e. Develop timeline and assign responsibilities.
Step 3:	DO YOUR HOMEWORK	a. Prepare for the specified actions. b. See the right people. c. Involve relevant groups. d. Continue to collect information. e. Continue to assess your plan. f. Make necessary modifications/adaptations.
Step 4:	IMPLEMENT YOUR PLAN	a. Carry out specified actions. b. Adapt plan if necessary.
Step 5:	EVALUATE AND FOLLOW UP	a. Assess the outcome of your actions. b. Identify necessary follow-up steps. c. Determine the goals for the next session.

A GUIDE TO ACTION

INSTRUCTIONS: Use this worksheet to complete Step 2: DEVELOP A PLAN, a-e (force-field analysis).

FORMULATE YOUR CHANGE GOALS

What is the goal of your action efforts--what change do you wish your schools to implement? Consider the following questions:

What change do you wish to make?
Whom do you want to change?
How will you bring about the change?
When will the change be accomplished?
Where will the change be accomplished?

Now write a goal statement that includes the answers to the foregoing questions.

ANALYZE THE FORCES FOR AND AGAINST CHANGE

What are the major forces that can support the change (driving forces) or inhibit the change (restraining forces)?

DRIVING FORCES	RESTRAINING FORCES

Questions that may assist you in the identification of forces include:

Who will be involved in or affected by the change? How will they perceive it? How will they react to it?
Who will support change efforts? How will they show it?
Who will oppose changes? How will they show it?

IDENTIFY POSSIBLE ACTIONS/STRATEGIES

List possible actions and strategies and consider the consequences of employing each.

ACTION STEP	CONSEQUENCES

SELECT ACTION STEPS

After evaluating the action steps, list the major ones you are going to implement, making sure they have a good chance for success.

MAJOR ACTION STEPS

DEVELOP TIMELINES AND ASSIGN RESPONSIBILITIES

List the action steps you will utilize to achieve your goals, the individual or group responsible for each, and the timetable for completion of each.

ACTION	PERSON(S) RESPONSIBLE	DATE TO BE COMPLETED

WORKSHEET 16

DESIRED STUDENT BEHAVIORS

Adapted from materials developed by Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education.

INSTRUCTIONS: Think for a moment about the behavior of your students in the classroom. Now list at least three behaviors that meet both of the following criteria:

- It is a behavior in which you now see differences between males and females.
- It is a behavior you would like to see in all your students, regardless of sex.

For example, if you would like all your students to participate actively in class, but you now feel that students of one sex participate less actively than those of the other, you might list "active classroom participation."

Once you have listed three or more specific behaviors, go back and prioritize them, ranking the behavior you believe is most important to students of both sexes as number one, the second most important as number two, etc.

BEHAVIORS	PRIORITIES

WORKSHEET 17

MY ACTION PLAN

Adapted from materials developed by Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education.

INSTRUCTIONS: In number 1, write in a desired behavior from the Worksheet "Desired Student Behaviors." Then complete this sheet for that behavior.

1. I would like my students to ______________________________

2. Is one sex currently exhibiting this behavior more than the other? If so, why do you think this condition exists?

   ____

   ____

   ____

3. Based on the data gained in your diagnostic inventory, what are you currently doing that may be contributing to this sex difference in the behavior of your students?

   ____

   ____

   ____

4. Based on the data gained in your diagnostic inventory, what are you doing that may be either hindering this behavior in one sex or promoting just the opposite kind of behavior?

____

____

____

5. Based on your understanding of the nature of the problem and your own expectations and behaviors, identify three to five steps you can take to establish and reinforce this desirable behavior in all your students.

a. ____

b. ____

c. ____

d. ____

e. ____

6. Which of the actions you listed in 5 will be the easiest for you to do?

____

____

____

7. Which of them will be the hardest for you to do? ______________

____

____

____

8. Which should produce results in the shortest amount of time?________

____

____

9. What do you choose to do tomorrow?____________________

____

____

10. How will you know that more students are exhibiting this behavior, or that students are exhibiting it more consistently?

____

____

____

SESSION 7: EXCHANGING IDEAS

Elementary Teacher Workshop

GOALS: TO EXCHANGE IDEAS ON PRACTICAL CLASSROOM STRATEGIES AND SEX-ROLE AWARENESS
TO EVALUATE THE WORKSHOP EXPERIENCE

Name tags
Sign-in sheet
Chalkboard
Newsprint
Masking tape
Markers

GENERAL BUSINESS

Invite comments and questions from the previous session and the homework.

10

Present Session 7 goals and overview.

large group

Poster with Session 7 goals and overview

OBJECTIVE #1

Participants will benefit from an exchange of ideas and experiences gained while doing sex-role awareness activities with their students.

TEACHER SHARING OF CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

50

Have teachers individually volunteer to share student- and teacher-initiated activities with workshop members.

individual

Facilitate a large group discussion. Encourage an exchange of ideas and experiences. What changes did they see in students' sex-role awareness? Was their own awareness increased?

large group

OBJECTIVE #2

Participants will evaluate the workshop experience by completing final evaluation forms.

WORKSHOP EVALUATION AND WRAP-UP

Conduct an evaluation of the workshop experience, as follows:

evaluation

Divide participants into three groups. Hand out the "Final Assessment" form, along with lists of session titles, Readings, Worksheets, and activities (films, value voting, etc.). 40

small group

ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT: Final Assessment

Lists of session titles, Readings, Worksheets and activities

Assign each group two or three sessions to evaluate. Have the groups discuss and record their consensus on the Assessment Instrument. 40

Have small groups report back to the total group on the session assessments. On newsprint, record any additional comments.

large group

Provide a way for each participant to give a personal statement of her or his experience in the workshop, as a wrap-up activity. 10

individual

PRE- AND POST-ASSESSMENT RESULTS (if applicable)

Share the results of pre- and post-assessment with participants (if applicable).

Assessment results

ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT 5

FINAL ASSESSMENT

This Assessment Instrument was prepared by Resources for Non-Sexist Environments, a federally funded WEEA project, to accompany EXPANDING OPTIONS, sex equity workshops for school communities, K-12.

INSTRUCTIONS: At the conclusion of the workshop, use this form to assess each session.

Place the appropriate number from the scale at right in each box below and specify the reasons for your response:

Effective			Not Effective	
1	2	3	4	5

ORGANIZATION Why?______________________________

____

CONTENT Why?______________________________

____

AUDIOVISUAL PRESENTATIONS Why?______________________________

____

WORKSHEETS; ACTIVITY CARDS

Most Valuable______________________________

Why?__________________________________

READINGS

Most Valuable ____________________

Why? ____________________

What specific changes would you make in this session? For example, what information or activities would you expand, delete, or add?

____

____

____

____

____

SESSION 8 (optional): ASSERT YOURSELF FOR EQUITY

Elementary Teacher Workshop

GOALS: TO INCREASE UNDERSTANDING OF ASSERTIVE, NON-ASSERTIVE, AND AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR
TO USE ASSERTIVENESS SKILLS TO ENHANCE INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS (COMMUNICATION)

GENERAL BUSINESS 10

Introduce yourself, giving personal and professional information.

Share resources (suggested list):

- The Assertive Woman, by Phelps and Austin
- Your Perfect Right, by Alberti and Emmons
- Asserting Yourself, by Bower and Bower

Present Session 8 goals and overview and have participants share their expectations. Use participant input as a guide for session direction and examples.

large group

Sign-in sheet
Name tags
Chalkboard
Newsprint
Masking tape
Markers
Overhead projector

OBJECTIVE #1

Participants will integrate the terms "non-assertive," "aggressive," and "assertive" into their personal lives by identifying situations and feelings that accompany these behaviors.

Poster with Session 8 goals and overview

INTRODUCTION TO ASSERTIVENESS 20

Give the Mini-Lecture "Introduction to Assertiveness" to define terms and concepts, using the Transparencies "Definitions," "Behavior Descriptors," and "Components of Assertive Behavior."

mini-lecture

MINI-LECTURE: Introduction to Assertiveness

TRANSPARENCY MASTERS:
Definitions

Behavior Descriptors

Components of Assertive Behavior

20 Have participants imagine themselves in each type of situation and then brainstorm the emotions and feelings that accompany each state (non-assertive, assertive, and aggressive). Record participants' responses on the chalkboard.

brainstorm

OBJECTIVE #2

Participants will be able to write "I" messages, as measured by completion of Worksheets.

DEVELOPING ASSERTIVE COMMUNICATION

5 Give the Mini-Lecture "'I' Messages," using the Transparency.

mini·lecture

MINI-LECTURE:
"I" Messages

TRANSPARENCY MASTER:
"I" Message Model

WORKSHEET:
"I" Messages

10 Distribute the Worksheet "'I' Messages." Explain the Worksheet and give examples. Divide participants into small groups and have them complete the Worksheet.

transparency

10 Facilitate a large group discussion and sharing of responses.

worksheet

OBJECTIVE #3

Participants will be able to apply assertiveness skills while giving and receiving compliments and criticism.

ASSERTIVE COMPLIMENTS AND CRITICISM

5 Give the Mini-Lecture "Giving and Receiving Compliments," and have participants share their personal perceptions and experiences.

mini·lecture

MINI-LECTURE:
Giving and Receiving Compliments

MINI-LECTURE:
Giving and Responding to Criticism

TRANSPARENCY MASTERS:
Types of Criticism and Responses

Responding to Criticism (A and B)

15 Give the Mini-Lecture "Giving and Responding to Criticism." Explain and give examples of how to respond to criticism without becoming disabled. Use the Transparencies, and respond to group questions and concerns as appropriate.

transparency

SELECT OPTION 50

Select from the following options:

optional

brainstorm

Option 1: As a class or in a few large groups, participants should brainstorm situations or use the Worksheet "Assertiveness Role-Play Situations" for application and practice of giving and responding to criticism.

Divide participants into groups of three. Have each group choose one or two situations to role play. Have two group members role play each situation, with the third person monitoring. Then have them reverse roles.

Facilitate a large group sharing of the role-playing activity.

worksheet

WORKSHEET: Assertiveness Role-Play Situations

Option 2: Explain the Worksheet "DESC Script," and emphasize its use in conflict situations. Provide an example, using the Worksheet as a guide. Use the Transparency to illustrate.

WORKSHEET: DESC Script

transparency

TRANSPARENCY MASTER: DESC Script

Divide participants in pairs and have each pair fill in the Worksheet, choosing an appropriate situation from their personal or professional experience related to the issue of sex equity.

Facilitate a large group sharing of responses.

PROCESS EVALUATION 5

Conduct a process evaluation of the session, using the "Process Evaluation Form."

evaluation

ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT: Process Evaluation Form

INI-LECTURE: INTRODUCTION TO ASSERTIVENESS

is Mini-Lecture provides basic information regarding the philosophy, value,
d learning process for developing assertive behavior.

LOSOPHY AND VALUE

Assertiveness training provides a *framework for looking at behavior*. Using this framework, an individual can look at personal behavior, analyze problem situations, and identify behaviors that are no longer functional or effective.

Assertiveness training is based on the belief that when a person values others and communicates in an honest and direct way, she or he can:

- Maintain *self-respect* by taking responsibility for her or his own feelings, needs and actions.
- Improve *interpersonal relationships* by letting others know where they stand.
- Increase her or his ability to make *choices* about personal behavior in a given situation (improve *personal power*).
- Increase the likelihood of reaching *goals* (*self-confidence* increases with more success experiences).

ECOMING ASSERTIVE

Assertiveness training involves learning new *terms* and *skills* through *practice* and *perseverance*. Role-playing, or assertiveness practice in a group, is an effective way to develop new assertive behavior. It is difficult to respond assertively in a situation where there are strong feelings or the stakes are high.

Behavior change also requires *time* and *introspection*. You can't become a new person overnight, and looking at your own behavior is difficult, but the payoff is high. Remember that when you change, it can be *threatening* to those around you. They may *resist* the "new" you and attempt to change you back to the way you were.

Understanding the terms non-assertive, aggressive, and assertive is an essential first step in becoming assertive and standing up for your own rights.

EFINITIONS

[Use the Transparencies "Definitions," "Behavior Descriptors," and "Components of Assertive Behavior."]

- *Non-assertive*: not recognizing or expressing personal needs, wants or desires; allowing others to choose for you; seldom achieving your goal; denying responsibility for your own actions. It results in *self-denial* and *inhibition*.
- *Aggressive*: expressing personal desires, values, and needs while violating the rights of others; accomplishing your goal at others' expense. It results in feelings of *temporary satisfaction* and *guilt*.
- *Assertive*: recognizing and expressing personal wants, values, needs, and feelings without violating the rights and feelings of others; choosing how to act in a given situation; usually achieving your goal; creating a win-win situation. This results in *self-enhancement* and *self-respect*.

AN EXAMPLE: DINING OUT

Mr. A and Ms. B are at dinner in a moderately expensive restaurant. Mr. A has ordered a rare steak, but when the steak is served, Mr. A finds it to be very well done, contrary to his order. He can respond in one of three ways:

- NON-ASSERTIVE: Mr. A grumbles to Ms. B about the "burned" meat, and states that he won't patronize this restaurant in the future. He says nothing to the waitress, responding "Fine!" to her inquiry, "Is everything all right?" His dinner and evening are highly unsatisfactory, and he feels guilty for having taken no action. Both Mr. A's and Ms. B's estimates of Mr. A are deflated by the experience.

AGGRESSIVE: Mr. A angrily summons the waitress to the table. He berates her loudly and unfairly for not complying with his order. His actions ridicule the waitress and embarrass Ms. B. He demands and receives another steak, this one more to his liking. He feels in control of the situation, but Ms. B's embarrassment creates friction between them and spoils their evening. The waitress is humiliated and angry, and loses her poise for the rest of the evening.

ASSERTIVE: Mr. A motions the waitress to his table. Noting that he had ordered a rare steak, he shows her the well-done meat, asking politely but firmly that it be returned to the kitchen and replaced with the rare-cooked steak he originally requested. The waitress apologizes for the error, and returns shortly with a rare steak. Both Mr. A and Ms. B enjoy dinner, tip accordingly, and Mr. A feels satisfied with himself. The waitress is pleased with a satisfied customer and an adequate tip.

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DEFINITIONS

NON-ASSERTIVE	not recognizing or expressing personal needs, wants, or desires
AGGRESSIVE	expressing personal desires, values, and needs while violating the rights of others
ASSERTIVE	recognizing and expressing personal wants, values, needs, and feelings without violating the rights and feelings of others

BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTORS

NON-ASSERTIVE	AGGRESSIVE	ASSERTIVE
(as actor)	(as actor)	(as actor)
self-denying	self-enhancing at expense of another	self-enhancing
inhibited	expressive	expressive
hurt, anxious	depreciates others	feels good about self
allows others to choose for her/him	chooses for others	chooses for self
does not achieve desired goal	achieves desired goal by hurting others	may achieve desired goal
(as acted upon)	(as acted upon)	(as acted upon)
guilty or angry	self-denying	self-enhancing
depreciates actor	hurt, defensive, humiliated	expressive
achieves desired goal at actor's expense	does not achieve desired goal	may achieve desired goal

COMPONENTS OF ASSERTIVE BEHAVIOR

- BODY LANGUAGE
  - eye contact
  - facial expression
  - gestures
- VOICE
  - volume
  - quality
  - tone
  - inflection
- TIMING
- CONTENT

MINI-LECTURE: "I" MESSAGES

This Mini-Lecture provides a definition and background information regarding the use of the assertive "I" message.

RATIONALE FOR USAGE

An "I" message is used to establish and maintain close and honest interpersonal relationships. It facilitates *cooperation* and *open communication*. An "I" message communicates personal feelings and experiences (positive and negative) and states the effect another's behavior has on you. "I" messages do not judge or interpret another's behavior, nor do they place blame on another. They are less likely to provoke resistance because they relate your *perception of fact* rather than stating your evaluation.

The "I" message response is also effective when you are communicating positive feelings. It affirms or supports without evaluating--for example, "I really like the colors in your picture" instead of "You're such a good artist."

"YOU" MESSAGE

On the other hand, a "you" message is a direct *attack* on another's behavior, and usually throws the other person into a *defensive position*, making her or him less free to listen to your statement. For example, if someone constantly interrupts you, the "you" message response might be "You always interrupt me," or "You're rude," attacking and causing the other person to take the defensive. The "I" message response might be, "When I am interrupted, I find it difficult to get my work done, and I get irritated," describing behavior and explaining the effect a behavior has had on you; the other person cannot deny your perceptions or feelings.

FRAMEWORK

It's important to have a *framework* or model when learning new behaviors. This model can serve as a guide to learn the assertive "I" message. [Use the Transparency.]

MODEL: *When* ____________________ (describe the behavior), *then* ________
__________ give the effects of the behavior on you), *and I feel*
_____________________ (state your own feelings).

"I" MESSAGE MODEL

WHEN . . . (describe the behavior),

THEN . . . (give the effects of the behavior on you),

AND I FEEL . . . (state your own feelings).

WORKSHEET 18

"I" MESSAGES

The "I" message is used to establish and maintain close and honest interpersonal relationships. Open communication and cooperation are enhanced because the speaker assumes the responsibility for stating how a situation affects her or him, rather than blaming someone else.

INSTRUCTIONS: Complete the situations below by writing an "I" message. Use the following model and example as guides.

MODEL: When . . . (describe the behavior), then . . . (give the effects of the behavior on you), and I feel . . . (state your own feelings)

EXAMPLE: You have a friend who talks continuously and drives you crazy!

You say: When you talk without stopping, then I don't get a chance to say anything and I feel frustrated and left out of the conversation.

1. A person you live with leaves the kitchen in a mess constantly. You say:

2. You're trying to get some work done, and a co-worker (neighbor) keeps interrupting you. You say:

3. A friend borrows an object that you value and doesn't return it.
You say:

4. You are on your way home from a party where your partner told a sexist story. You say:

5. You and a friend agree to go to a movie together. After the movie the friend complains that it was awful, that he or she didn't want to go to it in the first place, and that it's *your* fault the evening was boring. You say:

6. A person has agreed to share an important project with you and then does not follow through. You say:

MINI-LECTURE: GIVING AND RECEIVING COMPLIMENTS

This Mini-Lecture provides background information on compliments and how to give and receive them assertively.

ASSERTIVE COMMUNICATION

Individuals give and receive compliments in ways that are often dysfunctional. In other words, communication systems do not always *enhance relationships*, but often tend to make things worse. There are ways to learn to deal with compliments assertively. We will consider some aspects of dysfunctional responses (often socialized), as well as positive, assertive responses.

GIVING COMPLIMENTS

An assertive person regards compliments as sincere, specific expressions of appreciation and avoids false flattery or inappropriate statements used to cover up negative or inadequate feelings. You can learn to give sincere compliments by using both verbal and non-verbal messages (a warm touch, a smile, nod, wink, okay sign, pat on hand or back, etc.). When giving a compliment, remember to be honest and specific. Describe the other person's actions and state how you feel--for example, "I really liked the way you said no when that salesperson was pressuring you to buy that appliance," instead of "You're great!" The more information you can give others about their behavior, the more helpful and appreciated the information will be.

RECEIVING COMPLIMENTS

Many of us have been programmed to respond to compliments with a humble denial of protest and embarrassment. This type of response can make the complimenter feel uneasy or put down and negates a sincere expression. The following are assertive ways to receive a compliment.

- Accept and enjoy a compliment and do not be concerned about the motives behind it. (One could ponder motives at length and miss enjoyment of the compliment.)

- Acknowledge the compliment, either verbally or non-verbally.
- Give free information regarding your feelings about the compliment, so that the sender knows its meaning to you.
- Don't feel obligated to give a compliment in return for one; just acknowledge the message.

MINI-LECTURE: GIVING AND RESPONDING TO CRITICISM

This Mini-Lecture outlines suggested assertiveness skills for giving and responding to criticism without becoming disabled.

ASPECTS OF CRITICISM

Giving and responding to criticism are difficult for most individuals. There are two basic aspects of criticism that may account for this. First is the *fear of rejection* and second is the element of *surprise*.

FEAR OF REJECTION

Criticism *threatens our need to be liked and accepted*, and often causes us to inhibit our actions. We fear people won't like us if we criticize them or, if criticized, we feel people do not like us personally. By learning some assertive responses and approaches to criticism, we can prepare, enabling ourselves to evaluate criticism more effectively, and establishing respect with others.

ELEMENT OF SURPRISE

The element of surprise is the other factor that makes it difficult to deal with criticism. When critical statements are not expected, they catch us off balance and *can cause hurt and embarrassment*. To overcome our fear of criticism and to cope with the surprise element, it is necessary to desensitize ourselves. First, we will look at our own strengths and weaknesses. An easy way to do this is to make a list of your positive and negative qualities. Second, we will prepare for different types of criticism and learn some *effective, self-confident responses*. This provides us with choices about how to respond and gives us a method by which we can make more clearly defined decisions about whether or not we want to change. As we become more confident, it becomes easier to look at and share faults with others without feeling rejected. It's important to remember that *ideas and behaviors are rejected*, and *not people*.

TYPES OF CRITICISM AND RESPONSES

Criticism can fall into one of three categories:

(1) unrealistic criticisms

(2) put-downs

(3) valid criticisms.

[Use the Transparency "Types of Criticism and Responses."]

- An *unrealistic criticism* is a statement that is totally invalid and exaggerated. The best response to this type of criticism is to *contradict it openly*.

  For example: Speaker: "You're a lazy bum."
  Responder: "I don't agree. I have worked hard and I want to rest."

- A *put-down* is a patronizing insult rather than a legitimate criticism, but it may contain an element of truth.

  There are two effective responses to this type of criticism: (1) *use humor* and/or (2) *state your feelings* using an "I" message.

  For example: Speaker: "It's nice you have time to rest while the rest of us are still working."
  Responder: (Humor) "I supervise better from a prone position."
  ("I" message) "I feel put down by that remark."

- A *valid criticism* is a realistic statement made in a straightforward way. It can provide helpful information about the effects of our actions on others.

  The assertive response is to *acknowledge the criticism* as valid and perhaps add a statement that you're aware of the problem and are working to change it.

  For example: Speaker: "I get irritated when you rest and the rest of us have to do your share of the work."

Responder: "I can see that it's annoying for you. My system seems to require a lot of rest lately, and I am concerned about that."

RESPONDING TO CRITICISM

Here are some *dysfunctional* ways of responding to criticism. When they are used, effective communication stops.

[Use the Transparency "Responding to Criticism (A)."]

- *Reverse attack*: Criticize right back, attacking the other person with a critical statement. This is a defensive action, which accelerates conflict.
- *Apologize*: Accept the fault without cause. This is not a sincere apology but a non-assertive statement used to accept blame and avoid confrontation.
- *Ignore or divert*: Pretend not to hear, or change the subject to avoid confrontation.
- *Excuse and explain*: Offer excuses and detailed explanations to rationalize your actions.
- *Withdraw, clam up, or cry*: Avoid confrontation with non-assertive tactics.

[Give examples or have participants give some.]

Below are some responses that are not dysfunctional but ego-supportive, which will assist you in responding to criticism without becoming disabled. They will also help you maintain your balance while the surprise factor is operating:

[Use the Transparency "Responding to Criticism (B)."]

- "Tell me more about that," or "Please be more specific."
- "Any suggestions?" or "How would you like me to change?"
- "How does that bother you?"

- "Thanks for your opinion."
- "That may be true; I agree."
- "I don't agree, I am not . . ."
- "I would like to think about that and get back to you later."
- "Yes, that's a problem for me, and I'm working on it."
- "When you say that, I feel . . ." (acknowledge your feelings).

GIVING CRITICISM

Giving criticism, like responding to criticism, calls for the same principles of *honesty*, *specificity*, and *expression of feelings*. Check whether your message is unrealistic, a put-down, or a valid statement. If the criticism is a valid one, the "I" message format is most effective, as it is less likely to create defensiveness in the other person.

[If you wish, use the Transparency "'I' Message Model," presented in an earlier Mini-Lecture in this session.]

Use the following as a guide when giving criticism:

- *Clarify or describe* the behavior.
- *Give specific examples*--a particular time or place.
- *State your feelings* about the behavior or situation.

For example: "When we make arrangements to meet at 6:00 P.M. and you arrive 20 minutes late, I get annoyed and angry."

TYPES OF CRITICISM AND RESPONSES

CRITICISM	RESPONSE
Unrealistic criticism	Open contradiction
Put-down	Humor Statement of feelings
Valid criticism	Acknowledgment

RESPONDING TO CRITICISM (A)

DYSFUNCTIONAL RESPONSES

Reverse the attack

Apologize

Ignore or divert

Excluse and explain

Withdraw, clam up or cry

RESPONDING TO CRITICISM (B)

EGO-SUPPORTIVE RESPONSES

"Tell me more about that," or "Please be more specific."

"Any suggestions?" or "How would you like me to change?"

"How does that bother you?"

"Thanks for your opinion."

"That may be true; I agree."

"I don't agree, I am not . . ."

"I would like to think about that and get back to you later."

"Yes, that's problem for me, and I'm working on it."

"When you say that, I feel . . ." (acknowledge your feelings).

WORKSHEET 19

ASSERTIVENESS ROLE-PLAY SITUATIONS

Adapted from materials in the Project Awareness Training Manual.

INSTRUCTIONS: Use the following role-play situations to practice and perfect assertiveness skills.

GROUP 1

a. On an elementary school playground, a girl is being chased by several boys who are taunting her by trying to lift her skirt up. You are the teacher she runs to, crying, to tell about this. Before you have a chance to respond, another teacher says to the girl, "If you didn't tease the boys, they wouldn't chase you."

b. You see a 12-year-old boy hurt himself and begin to cry. A teacher you are with tells the boy to "stop crying and act like a man."

c. In the teachers' lunchroom, the subject of women's liberation comes up. After the initial jokes, someone says, "Those Libbers are just putting down women by rejecting their natural--and needed--role as wives and mothers."

d. As a 40-year-old woman, you've decided to go back to the university for your teaching certificate. Your teenage children say, "Oh, Mom, don't be silly; you're too old."

GROUP 2

a. Your school hires a male secretary. You hear some students making fun of him. "I bet he does all the cooking and cleaning for his family, too," they say.

b. At a workshop discussing racism and sexism, some of the people say, "The real problem in our society is racism. Sexism is just fogging the issue."

c. You watch another teacher settle a verbal battle between a girl and a boy by separating them. The teacher later tells you that she can't stand the constant bickering and name-calling between the boys and girls. Then she shrugs and says, "This is just a stage they're going through. It's natural for nine-year-old girls and boys to hate each other."

d. As a high school senior, you've heard of a construction trades apprenticeship program for women and you decide to apply. You tell your math teacher and he jokes, "Oh, you'll look cute in a hard hat."

GROUP 3

a. You are told by another woman that her husband (who is a junior high school principal) didn't hire you to teach because "those kids need a man to control them."

b. As a teacher, you read aloud your school's morning bulletin to your homeroom class. The bulletin contains a statement that, in accordance with a new district policy, schools are encouraged to have male cheerleaders for women's teams. Your announcement is met with loud laughter and jeers by the males present.

c. Your daughter, Mei-Lin, who has always received the highest grades in school, gets somewhat lower grades when she begins to play varsity basketball. "We had such high expectations of Mei-Lin's academic achievement," the school advisor tells you. "This sports image really doesn't fit her."

d. One of the boys in your school has enrolled in a modern dance class. You hear some students calling him a "queer" ("femme," "fag") behind his back.

GROUP 4

a. After hearing some put-downs, you decide to defend the women's rights movement. You answer two charges; then someone says, "Oh, you're one of *them*!"

b. You and another teacher are standing on the playground. Beth and Tom, two seven-year-olds, go racing by. The other teacher says to you, "That Beth! I wish she'd stop acting like a boy."

c. You are discussing Yolanda, a student from a migrant family, with the school psychologist. "She told me she wants to be a teacher when she grows up," the psychologist says. "But you know those Mexicans, they're always moving around and never amount to anything." How do you respond?

d. As you are walking down the hall, you overhear the science teacher (male) scolding some disruptive boys in his class (which is mostly male) for "acting like a bunch of girls. . . . That's all you are . . . a bunch of girls."

GROUP 5

a. After reading a chapter in your social studies book about how Columbus "discovered" America, some of the students in your fifth-grade class start to call Patricia, a Native American, "Pocahontas." She complains about this.

b. You are standing in a group with a male teacher. A female student wearing a new outfit passes by. The male teacher says, "Wow! Aren't you a knockout today. You're one foxy chick." The female student looks at him coldly and walks away. He turns to you and says, "Well, what's with her?"

c. A kindergarten teacher tells you, the school psychologist, that she is concerned about Jerry because he often plays in the doll corner. "What should I do about it?" she asks. "Maybe it's because he lives with just his mother and never sees his dad."

d. Linda and Bill have similar grades and similar results on vocational interest inventories. Their counselor urges Bill to consider becoming a doctor and Linda to consider becoming a nurse. "Yes, I'm interpreting their scores differently. That's what the real world is like," the counselor tells you.

GROUP 6

a. As a 50-year-old woman, you've applied for a job as a receptionist in the main office of your school district. The personnel interviewer tells you, "If it were up to me, you're qualified for the job. But--off the record--the superintendent said to find a young woman. It's the public image, you know."

b. Mary and Maria have similar grades and similar results on vocational interest inventories. Their counselor encourages Mary, who is Anglo, to think about college, and Maria, who is Chicana, to think about secretarial school. "Yes, I'm interpreting their grades and interest results differently. . . . That's what the real world is like," the counselor tells you.

c. Three five-year-old girls are sitting at the sewing table, stitching around designs they've drawn. Their classmate Steve approaches, watches for a while, and picks up a piece of cloth. You hear one of the girls say, "No, Steve, you shouldn't play here. Boys don't sew." Steve drops the cloth and starts to turn away.

d. You are talking with the school secretary about how girls' sports programs get so much less attention and money than boys'. You explain that when you were in high school, you set some records for track and you would have liked to continue, but there was no opportunity for you to do so. The secretary says, "But Babe Didrikson made it in sports--why couldn't you?"

GROUP 7

a. Another teacher tells you that Joan, one of your students, wants to become a doctor. The teacher is skeptical because "people who come from poor families like Joan's never have enough initiative--or persistence."

b. In a work awareness course, you inform students that nine out of ten girls can expect to work outside their homes at some time during their adult lives. A young woman in the class says she plans to be a full-time wife and mother.

c. Your 16-year-old daughter tells you, "But Mom and Dad, if I do all that work for my report, the boys will think I'm too smart."

d. Six-year-old Victor suddenly, impulsively, hugs you, his teacher, and you hug him in return. The other boys in the class start jeering, "Victor loves the teacher, Victor loves the teacher." Victor leaps on one of the taunting boys, wrestling and punching.

GROUP 8

a. You are coaching a group of boys who are playing baseball. Two girls are standing around watching wistfully. You call out, "Don't you girls want to play too?" "No!" shout the boys, "we don't want them . . . they're no good."

b. You have just been named head of your department. A man who expected to get the job approaches you and says, "The only reason you were appointed is that you are a woman and the district needs to fulfill its affirmative action program."

c. Your daughter, Keiko, an eighth-grader in a mostly white school, uses a Japanese lantern theme in her campaign signs for president of student government. Her teacher tells you that Keiko writes so neatly that she would be better as secretary of student government. The teacher also tells you that Keiko shouldn't use the Japanese lantern theme--"She doesn't want to set herself apart from the other children, does she?"

d. When discussing future jobs in your elementary class, most of the girls say they plan to be "mommies." The boys say they want to be firemen, policemen, doctors, astronauts, etc.

WORKSHEET 20

DESC SCRIPT

Reprinted with permission from Asserting Yourself, by Sharon Bower and Gordon Bower. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1976.

INSTRUCTIONS: *Choose a conflict situation to use the DESC Script model. In the four spaces below, write what you would say to the other person. One or two sentences for each step are sufficient.*

D ESCRIBE the other person's behavior *objectively* to him or her.

E XPRESS your feelings to the other person in a positive way.

S PECIFY one or two behavior changes you would like the person to make. Ask for agreement!

C ONSEQUENCES: Tell what you can do for the other person if the agreement to change is kept (*positive consequences*).

If necessary, tell the person what you will do if the agreement is not kept (*negative consequences*).

RULES FOR ASSERTIVE DESC SCRIPTS

PURPOSE: The DESC Script is used to negotiate for positive change in conflict situations. This approach provides a framework for analyzing conflict, determining your needs and rights, proposing a resolution, and negotiating for change.

	DO	DO NOT
DESCRIBE	Describe the other person's behavior objectively.	Describe your emotional reaction to it.
	Use concrete terms.	Use abstract, vague terms.
	Describe a specific time and place, and the frequency of the action.	Generalize for "all the time."
	Describe the action.	Guess at or infer motives or goals.
EXPRESS	Express your feelings.	Deny your feelings.
	Express them calmly.	Unleash emotional outbursts.
	State feelings in a positive manner, as relating to a goal to be achieved.	State feelings negatively, making a put-down or attack.
	Direct yourself to the specific offending behavior, not to the whole person.	Attack the entire character of the person.

	DO	DO NOT
SPECIFY	Ask explicitly for a change in behavior.	Merely imply that you'd like a change.
	Request a small change.	Ask for too large a change.
	Request only one or two changes at one time.	Ask for too many changes.
	Specify the concrete actions you want to see stopped, and those you want to see performed.	Ask for changes in nebulous traits or qualities.
	Take account of whether the other can meet your request without suffering large losses.	Ignore the other's needs or ask only for your satisfaction.
	Specify (if appropriate) what behavior you are willing to change to make the agreement.	Consider that only the other person has to change.
CONSEQUENCES	Make the consequences explicit.	Be ashamed to talk about rewards and penalties.
	Give a positive reward for change in the desired direction.	Give only punishments for lack of change.
	Select something that is desirable and reinforcing to the other person.	Select something that only you might find rewarding.
	Select a reward that is big enough to maintain the behavior change.	Offer a reward you can't or won't deliver.
	Select a punishment of a magnitude that "fits the crime" of refusing to change behavior.	Make exaggerated threats.
	Select a punishment that you are actually willing to carry out.	Use unrealistic threats or self-defeating punishment.

DESC Script*

D ESCRIBE the other person's behavior objectively to her or him.

E XPRESS your feelings to the other person in a positive way.

S PECIFY one or two behavior changes you would like the person to make. Ask for agreement!

C ONSEQUENCES: Tell what you can do for the other person if the agreement to change is kept (positive consequences).

If necessary, tell the person what you will do if the agreement is *not* kept (negative consequences).

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